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ABSTRACT

This document contains all of the presentations given at the 1974 National American Academy of Advertising Conference in Newport, Rhode Island. The theme of the conference was "Perspectives on Advertising" and the areas of focus were curricula and instruction, descriptive and experimental research, cooperation between educators and the advertising industry, and special area concerns of public policy, international advertising, and public relations. Among the presentations included here are the following: "How Advertising Is Really Used: Success and Failure" by Norman Levy and B. Michael Moore; "The Introductory Course in Advertising" by E. S. Lorimor; "Some Observations on Closing the Communications Gap Between Teachers and Practitioners" by Melvin S. Hattwick; "Truth in Retail Newspaper Advertising" by James R. Krum; "An Empirical Analysis of Commercial Message Credibility" by Ross L. Goble, John Lillibridge, and Harold Pazer; "How to Evaluate Your Advertising" by Harry Wayne McMahon; "Television Viewing, Sleeping Habits, and Energy Conservation" by Donald Hendon; and "Communication with Middle-class Blacks: A Public Relations Perspective" by Jacob M. Duker. (TS)

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PERSPECTIVES ON ADVERTISING EDUCATION

CURRICULA

RESEARCH - DESCRIPTIVE

RESEARCH - EXPERIMENTAL

INDUSTRY/EDUCATORS' COOPERATION

SPECIAL INTEREST AREAS
Public Policy
International Advertising
Public Relations

INSTRUCTION
Management Curriculum
Creative Curriculum
Research Curriculum

THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ADVERTISING

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
1974 NATIONAL CONFERENCE
FOR
UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS OF ADVERTISING
AT
THE UNIVERSITY OF RHODE ISLAND

BEST AVAILABLE COPY

Edited BY

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1974

FOREWORD

The American Academy of Advertising is the national association of advertising educators. Its more than 250 members teach advertising at all academic levels and in colleges and universities with orientations in communications, journalism, and marketing management.

The following set of presentations represents the written record of the 1974 national AAA Conference, held April 28-30, in Newport, Rhode Island. The Conference was divided into eight sessions and each has been identified within this set of Proceedings with its respective papers immediately following; all presentations made before the Conference appear herein in the order in which they were given.

Educators' papers have been reproduced in their entireties, except for illustrative materials. Some footnotes and tables were placed within the context of their papers in an effort to save space. Presentations and panel discussions given by non-educators were summarized by the editor and have been included.

Sherilyn K. Zeigler
Editor

The University of Tennessee
Knoxville

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CONFERENCE PROGRAM

Sunday, April 28

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5:30 p.m. Social Hour

6:30 p.m. Dinner

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University of Rhode Island

Stephen A. Greyser, President, A.A.A.

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INTRODUCTION

The theme of this AAA conference was Perspectives on Advertising: curricula and instruction, descriptive and experimental research, cooperation between educators and the advertising industry, and special area concerns of public policy, international advertising, and public relations. These in turn reflect the breadth and vitality of interests within the Academy--an Academy whose unifying element is its members' common concern for advertising education.

These Proceedings not only communicate the content of the Conference to the broader community of advertising teachers and practitioners, but also reflect the institutional maturity of the Academy: this marks the second consecutive year of printed proceedings. (The content of the 1973 conference at Arizona State University was printed by the AAAA, with whose assistance the augmented 1973 conference was conducted.)

The Academy is in the strongest intellectual and financial condition in its history:

- We have demonstrated our independent capability to conceive and mount a significant conference program, including meaningful industry involvement.

- The Journal of Advertising has grown from a nascent stage to infancy to pre-adolescence; now a quarterly, it is taking its place as an important vehicle for those who think and write about advertising.

- Over 250 members are now on the paid roster. Our financial condition permits us to "hold the line" in dues while increasing member benefits.

- The Academy's industry relations activities are broadening. Cooperation with the 4A's continues to be active. In addition, there are active contacts and planned cooperative efforts with ANA and AAF. (Indeed, representatives from all three of these groups participated in a panel discussion of educator-industry relations at this conference.)

In bringing the Academy to its present felicitous state, and in laying the foundation for its further development, we should make particular note of the work of my predecessor and my successor as the Academy's president.

- Watson Dunn (University of Illinois) revived the flagging state of the Academy and laid out the paths of its subsequent development in the past four years.

- Kenward Atkin (Michigan State University) has undertaken the bulk of the operating and implementing activities of these past two years.

With them, a number of Academy members have worked as officers and heads of committees, aided by many members active in our growing variety of activities. It is in this broad foundation of active efforts that the strength of the Academy's future lies.

All of us owe a large debt to those who have devoted their time and energy to the planning and preparation of the Conference from which these papers come. Program Chairman and Academy Vice President Kenward L. Atkin (Michigan State University) mobilized an energetic group of session chairmen to attract a large number of excellent papers and discussants. For Ken's months of unstinting effort, and for the hard work of the individual chairmen, we are grateful.

Also deserving of our very deep gratitude is General Conference Chairman Conrad Hill (University of Rhode Island). His has been the very time-consuming task of making arrangements for the unusual conference site, obtaining sponsors for certain portions of the program, and overseeing the myriad of details involved in putting on the Conference. To him and his URI host school colleagues, our deep appreciation.

Without Sherilyn Zeigler (University of Tennessee) this volume would never have appeared. For her assiduousness in putting together the material, and her care in shepherding the physical production of this volume, we are most thankful.

We hope that reading though and referring to these Proceedings is a professionally stimulating and worthwhile experience.

Stephen A. Greyser, President (1972-74)
American Academy of Advertising

SUMMARY OF THE PRESENTATION MADE BY: Norman Levy and B. Michael Moore,
Procter and Gamble Company

Procter and Gamble spends approximately $4 billion per year on advertising, and markets 55 brands in the U.S. and 26 countries. Sales are based, however, not on the quantity of advertising, but on the quality of products. Good advertising may lead consumers to buy a product once; but the product is what's responsible for repeat purchases.

Advertising is just one element in the marketing success stories of Procter and Gamble products. (An appropriate line from Zen Buddhism: "To point to the moon a finger is needed...but woe be to those who mistake the finger for the moon.")

The more that's learned about the development of advertising copy, the more obvious it becomes that advertising is not an exact science. Good advertising is advertising which does its job--which, basing its argument on genuine product capabilities and relevant user benefits, helps motivate the consumer to a sale. Judgment, research, and a certain amount of trial and error all contribute to successful advertising.

What does it take to produce advertising which works? It takes lots of experience (and an ability to learn from that experience), a willingness to accept the probability of change and the flexibility to see changes through, and a great deal of experimenting and testing. In short, it takes discipline: (1) to produce an ad or commercial whose "heart" is in the product story, not in sheer entertainment and irrelevant attention-getting devices; (2) to appreciate the value to consumers of tangible benefits and to find appropriate, meaningful problem-solvers to fulfill the wants, needs, and dreams people have; and (3) to present advertising messages clearly, simply, and memorably.

SESSION I: PERSPECTIVES ON ADVERTISING CURRICULA

THE INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN ADVERTISING

by
E. S. Lorimor
Assistant Professor
East Texas State University

Tommy Thomason
Instructor
Southern State College

Advertising education has recently been subject to criticism from all sides--from practitioners who think it is not practical enough to produce competent graduates (John T. Russell, "Is Advertising Education Relevant?," Saturday Review, March 13, 1971, pp. 94-101.) (Robert A. Olins, "Speaking Out On Ad Education--Who's Selling What?," Journalism Educator, April, 1974, pp. 39-40.) to educators who think it is too practical to be academically respectable. (Steuart Henderson Britt, "What Is Wrong With Advertising Education?," Journalism Quarterly, Summer, 1967, pp. 319-25.)

The teacher of the introduction to advertising course in most universities faces the whole problem in miniature. In his case, the controversy over advertising education is reduced to questions about the specific content of his course.

Should he teach it as simply a survey of the history, philosophy, and social implications of advertising, giving a broad general background of the field? Or should he give the student a more practical orientation, stressing exercises in layout and copywriting and the actual planning of advertising campaigns? Or should it be a combination of both approaches?

A second question involves textbooks. Some are oriented toward business and marketing, some toward agencies and the advertising industry, some toward practical advertising problems with a stress on copy writing and layout techniques, and still others toward a broad overview of the field, putting more emphasis on educating advertising consumers than advertising practitioners.

So the teacher of the introductory course must choose both a course philosophy and a textbook which will express that philosophy.

And if the problems of the teacher in choosing an approach to the introductory advertising course seem somewhat complicated, the problems faced by the department chairman in choosing an instructor for the course seem equally perplexing. Again, the choices are similar. He must often choose between Ph.D.'s with little or no practical background and M.A.'s or even B.A.'s with practical experience in advertising.

As far as we could determine, little research has been done to discover what is actually being taught in these introductory advertising courses in

American universities. This is true despite the fact that educators have been calling for such a study to help determine the major approaches to the teaching of the basic course. (Opinion expressed by Dr. S. Watson Dunn in an address at the annual meeting of the American Academy of Advertising at Norman, Oklahoma, April 14, 1972.)

The purpose of this study was to gain information on both the teachers of the introductory courses and the courses themselves, and to discover the prevalent teaching methods and philosophies used in the basic courses.

METHOD

Questionnaires were sent to the 132 member schools of the Association for Education in Journalism. An additional 91 questionnaires were sent to individual faculty members who were members of AEJ and listed advertising as a teaching specialty in the 1973 AEJ directory. (Some of the educators listed with a teaching specialty in advertising did not teach the introductory course. Also, an additional 32 questionnaires were sent to schools which noted on their responses that they had more than one faculty member teaching the introductory course. (While the introductory courses are standardized in some schools, in others the teaching philosophies, course content and even textbooks vary among the different sections of the course.)

A total of 102 usable replies were received.

The questionnaires included sections on the teacher and his academic and practical-experience background, the introductory course and how it is taught in the various schools, and the respondent's teaching philosophy.

FINDINGS

The Professor

The most common academic rank held by respondents was assistant professor with 36, followed by associate professor (25), professor (21), and instructor (11).

TABLE 1

Faculty Rank of Respondents

Teach. Asst.	Instructor	Asst. Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Prof.	Lecturer	Other
1	11	36	25	21	5	8

Most of the respondents held bachelor's and master's degrees in journalism. On the bachelor's level, the second highest number held degrees in English. Most of the Ph.D.'s listed were in mass communications.

TABLE 2

Degrees Held by Respondents

	Journ.	Mass Comm.	Adv.	Bus.	Mkt.	English	Psych.	Sociology	History	Other
Bachelors	41	2	8	5	7	17	4	1	2	15
Masters	46	9	13	1	12	1	1	0	0	19
Doctorate	2	22	1	1	7	0	1	1	1	7

The respondents had completed an average of nine hours of undergraduate work in advertising and an average eight hours of graduate and post-graduate work. A large majority considered themselves either "extremely well prepared" or "well prepared" to teach the introductory course.

TABLE 3

Preparation for Teaching—Professor's Evaluation of His Own

Extremely Well Prep.	Well Prep.	Adeq. Prep.	Inad. Prep.	Very Inad. Prep.	NR
41	40	14	3	1	3

Of the respondents who listed professional experience in advertising, most had spent a greater number of years with newspapers or ad agencies. The respondents who listed professional experience had spent the greatest number of years in copy writing, layout and sales.

TABLE 4

Amount of Professional Experience in Advertising
(of those who listed experience in specified areas)

	Mean Years	SD	Max.	Min.	Range
Newspapers	3.3333	6.0385	30	0	30
Radio	0.8776	2.9923	20	0	20
TV	0.5657	2.4082	20	0	20
Ad Agency	2.4783	4.8026	22	0	22
House Agency	0.3061	1.4388	10	0	10
PR	0.2700	2.0639	20	0	20
Other	1.4839	3.7084	17	0	17

TABLE 5

Number of Years of Professional Experience in Given Categories
(from among those who listed experience in specified areas)

	Mean Years	SD	Max.	Min.	Range
Copy	3.4800	6.7811	40	0	40
Layout	1.8250	4.4431	24	0	24
Art	0.0606	0.3730	3	0	3
Research	0.8193	3.2839	24	0	24
Ad Representative	0.4891	1.9244	15	0	15
Sales	1.7241	4.2032	24	0	24
Other	1.5	4.4247	29	0	29

The respondents heavily favored both academic and experience requirements for teaching the intro course.

TABLE 6

Academic Requirements for Teaching--
no. of professors who think there should be

Yes	No	Perhaps
78	21	3

TABLE 7

Experience Requirements for Teaching--
no. of professors who think there should be

Yes	No	Perhpas	NR
76	23	1	2

The most common academic requirement listed was the master's degree, although a considerable number said the bachelor's degree should be acceptable if combined with experience in the advertising field.

TABLE 8

Kind of Educational Background Required

Bachelor's	Bach. with undergrad. Adv. Major	Master's	Master's in Bus. and/or Marketing	Master's in Journ. and/or Adv.	Some Grad Work	Doctorate	Other
12	3	14	3	6	2	2	34

As to the amount of practical experience that should be required, the respondents generally indicated one to five years.

TABLE 9

Amount of Experience Required

Years							
1	2	3	4	5	6-10	more than 10	NR
13	13	12	3	13	1	0	21

The Course

The most frequently listed names for the introductory course were Principles of Advertising or Advertising Principles (36), and Introduction to Advertising (20).

TABLE 10

Name of Introductory Course in Advertising

Fundamentals of Advertising or Advertising Fundamentals	7
Introduction to Advertising	20
Principles of Advertising or Advertising Principles	36
Advertising Principles and Practice	3
Survey of Advertising or Advertising Survey	2
Advertising	7
Advertising Copy and Layout	4
Other	23

Most respondents reported that it is offered at the junior level, although many offer it as a sophomore course.

TABLE 11

Level at Which Introductory Course is First Offered

Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	Graduate	Other
5	42	52	2	0	1

Most of the introductory courses represented in this study were offered in the department of journalism.

TABLE 12

Department, School or College Where Introductory Course is Offered

Journalism	Mass Comm.	Adv.	Business	Bus. Admin.	Marketing	Other
57	17	10	1	6	3	8

The most frequent type of advertising program mentioned was an advertising sequence, offered by 47 schools, followed by an advertising major in 22 schools, and 18 schools which offered the introductory course only.

TABLE 13

Type of Advertising Program--
no. of institutions offering a given

Major	Sequence	Emphasis	Program on Request	Intro Course Only	Other
22	47	6	1	18	7

Most of the introductory courses taught by the respondents were offered in the fall and spring semesters. The next most commonly reported schedule included not only the fall and spring, but also the summer semesters.

TABLE 14

Number of Schools Offering Introductory Course at Given Times

fall, spring, summer semesters	25
fall, spring	28
one semester a year	16
every other year	2
on demand	1
other	2
Schools on Quarter System:	
one quarter a year	6
two quarters	4
three quarters	6
four quarters	12

The average enrollment in the course the last three times it was taught was 74, with an average 37 per cent of those enrolled either non-journalism o non-advertising students.

TABLE 15

Average Enrollment in Intro Course
(last three times offered)

No. Resp.	Mean	SD	Max.	Min.	Range
102	74.9608	79.3676	500	0	500

TABLE 16

Percent Non-Journalism or Non-Advertising Students in Class

No. Resp.	Mean	SD	Max.	Min.	Range
98	37.0204	23.7209	80	0	80

However, most of the respondents noted that the presence of non-journalism or non-advertising students in their introductory classes did not affect the way they taught the classes.

TABLE 17

Does Presence of Non-Advertising Students
Affect the Way Class is Taught?

Yes	No	Other
34	62	6

Some noted that the presence of non-advertising students made the class discussions more interesting.

TABLE 18

No. of Professors Noting Effects (from among yes answers above)

Must Be More Elementary	7
Must Be More General	7
Non-Advertising Students Make Class More Interesting	8

The respondents reported an average of 322 undergraduate student majors in their department.

TABLE 19

Number of Undergraduate Student Majors in Department

No. Resp.	Mean	SD	Max.	Min.	Range
102	321.8529	317.4216	2200	0	2200

The survey showed that the average number of advertising hours offered by the respondents' departments was 14.

TABLE 20

Number of Credit Hours Offered in Advertising

No. Resp.	Mean	SD	Max.	Min.	Range
102	14.1882	10.3826	40	0	40

Textbooks

The most commonly used textbook was Wright, Warner and Winter's Advertising, used by 37 teachers, followed by Kleppner's Advertising Procedure, used by 22, and Dunn's Advertising: Its Role in Modern Marketing, used by 12. Most professors reported satisfaction with the textbook they were using and had no plans to change.

TABLE 21

Number of Teachers Using Listed Textbooks

Textbook	No. Using	Satisfied?			Plans to Change?		
		yes	no	NR	yes	no	perhaps
Wright, Warner, Winter	37	26	11		2	31	4
Kleppner	22	15	6	1	2	15	3
Dunn	12	12	0		0	10	1
Littlefield-Kirkpatrick	3	2	1		1	2	0
Sandage-Fryburger	4	3	0	1	1	2	0
Burton and Miller	3	2	1		0	3	0
Mandell	4	4	0		0	4	0
No Text	4	0	0	4	0	0	0
Other	13	6	4	3	1	9	1

The most frequently mentioned reasons for textbook selection were that the book was the "best available," "most comprehensive," or "most up-to-date." Many of the respondents were using a textbook selected by a department chairman or departmental committee, or a book used previously in the course (Table 22).

Of those who suggested changes in their textbooks the most common complaint was that the book needed updating (Table 23).

Most of the respondents noted that they required additional readings in the introductory course.

TABLE 24

Additional Readings--Professors Requiring

Yes	No	Optional or Equivalent	Other
77	19	2	4

The most frequently mentioned were Ad Age, other advertising periodicals, and trade and professional journals (Table 25).

TABLE 22

Reasons for Selecting Textbook

Textbook	up-to-date	used previously in the course	decision made by someone other than the respondent	most complete	covers areas he likes to stress in class	best available	students like it	comprehensive	other
Wright, Warner, Winter	7	3	2	3	0	6	0	4	12
Dunn	0	0	3	0	0	1	0	1	7
Kleppner	1	2	0	0	1	5	1	0	12
Littlefield-Kirkpatrick	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Sandage-Fryburger	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2
Burton and Miller	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Mandell	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
No Text	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Other	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	11

TABLE 23

Changes or Additions Recommended for Advertising Textbooks (from those who recommended changes)

Textbook	needs up-dating	should include more on bus/mkting aspects	should include more on social implications	includes too much material	behavioral sections need to be revised	dis-satisfied w/ writing style	should be more practical	should have more on adv., less on bus/mkting
Wright, Warner, Winter	2	1	2	3	0	2	1	1
Dunn	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Kleppner	6	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
Littlefield-Kirkpatrick	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sandage-Fryburger	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
Burton and Miller	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mandell	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
No Text	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0

TABLE 25

Number of Professors Requiring Given Types of Readings

Current Research	5
Ad Age	24
Other Advertising Periodicals	13
Trade and Professional Journals	17
Barban & Sandage: Readings in Advertising and Promotional Strategy	4
Madison Avenue USA	7
Della Femina: From Those Wonderful Folks Who Gave You Pearl Harbor	5
Ogilvy: Confessions of an Ad Man	7
Unspecified Periodicals, General Readings	22
Other	14

Most respondents did not require term papers of their students, and of those who did the specified length was generally under 20 pages.

TABLE 26

Number of Professors Requiring Term Papers

Require Papers	Do Not Require	Require Equivalent	NR
29	63	1	9

TABLE 27

Number of Professors Requiring the Stated Length of Term Paper (from among those who require term papers)

Less than 10 pp.	10-20 pp.	21-30 pp.	31-40 pp.	41-50 pp.	More than 50 pp.	No specified length
5	11	3	0	0	1	11

Course Philosophy

Of 90 teachers who answered the question on their philosophy of the introductory course, 32 said they viewed it as an introduction to the history, philosophy, and social implications of advertising; 12 said they taught a practical, how-to-do-it course; and 46 said they viewed the course as a combination of both approaches and emphasized both theoretical and practical aspects.

TABLE 28

Number of Professors Who View the Introductory Course in a Given Light

Introduction to history, philosophy, social implications of adv	32
Practical how-to-do-it course	12
Combination of both approaches	46
No response	12

One professor noted:

> Though I am personally more concerned with philosophical and social knowledge of advertising, I find this becomes boring to students very quickly. I try to compromise and do a bit of this general background mixed in with the 'real world' stuff which they seem to like--bringing in practitioners, showing radio and TV Clios, slides of ads, etc.

A professor who stressed the how-to-do-it approach commented:

> My thrust is to show how an effective advertising program is planned, researched and executed to fulfill social and psychological needs and wants to consumers. I have no illusion that students will be advertising experts after taking the course. But they should be aware of what is involved in advertising, know why and how it works, determine whether or not they wish to consider career opportunities in advertising, have a rudimentary copy and layout skill, and be more intelligent consumers of advertising messages.
>
> We spend no time on history or philosophy per se, other than to cite campaigns which succeeded or failed for one reason or another and to point out the purpose of advertising is to sell goods, services and ideas.

Another professor who employed the practical approach explained:

> Our curriculum stresses 'doing it.' Most of my students have had radio and TV (sometimes newspaper) production courses. I teach them to apply this to advertising.
>
> I try in the intro course to give them a smattering of everything. For instance, I think it's unfair to gloss over certain jobs in advertising, simply because an instructor doesn't think they are glamorous, like direct mail.

Those who taught advertising within the marketing framework offered by business or business administration or marketing departments took a somewhat different view than those in journalism or mass communications programs, who were mainly concerned with preparing either practitioners or intelligent consumers of advertising. One marketing professor noted that his introductory advertising course was combination theory and practice, but with a somewhat different slant. He explained:

> Advertising is part of the marketing function and should be taught within the marketing framework. Principles of Marketing is a prerequisite for Principles of Advertising at this university.
>
> Many students, unless they are advertising majors, will only take the introductory course. Therefore, it is necessary to provide those who will end up in some area of commerce and industry sufficient 'principles' and a solid foundation for making intelligent management decisions

> (emphasis his) concerning advertising. They must be able to identify, define and analyze the market; do psychological analysis and research; and have a knowledge of mass media, etc.
>
> Copy and layout should not be included in a principles course. These are specialized areas of advertising and should only be taught at advanced levels. We have too many incompetents masquerading as copywriters and layout artists now. We certainly do not need to produce any more who have the misconception that they can write effective copy, lay out an ad, or even communicate effectively after an introductory course.

Most of the respondents saw their course as a combination of the practical and theoretical approaches, with the philosophies differing according to the individual curriculum of the university. Among those who taught the course as a "combination" of both approaches, the course generally leaned toward the practical in schools where only the introductory course was taught, and leaned toward the theoretical when the introductory course was the first in a sequence which included specialized courses in techniques later on.

One professor, from a school with only the introductory course, explained his approach:

> This course is the only advertising course many of our journalism students will have. Thus, I am interested that they understand advertising's role in society and that they understand various aspects of the criticism often leveled against advertising. I am more concerned, however, that they know the basic procedures involved in creating an ad. Many of our students will work for small newspapers. In such a position they will sooner or later be called upon to draw up an ad. When that time comes, I hope they will at least know where to begin.

Another teacher from a larger university which offered an advertising sequence noted that his school had added a new course which deals with one of the chief areas normally considered in the introductory course:

> We have no creative assignments because we want to draw heavily from students who are interested in the area but might be scared off by such work. There is plenty of opportunity for that elsewhere, anyway. The purpose of the course is to cover the general nature of advertising, including much reading and discussion about creative tasks. We used to have a lot of material about advertising in society (ethics, consumerism, regulation, etc.) in the course, but we took most of that out and put it into another course called Mass Communications for the Consumer. Therefore the Principles course is now mostly industry oriented, and basically very practical, in anticipation of the later courses in the sequence.

Also becoming more popular in the larger schools, as indicated by the survey, are separate sections for majors and non-majors, with the non-majors' section mainly a broad overview of the institution of advertising and its social implications and the majors' section an introduction to further specialized study in the field.

Team teaching, audio-visuals and guest speakers were the most frequently mentioned methods of helping arouse student interest in the introductory courses. One professor shared his method of adding depth to the course presentation:

> My own personal belief is that professional people in the classroom adds the breath of life to advertising, in many students' opinion. So I always arrange for at least 25 per cent of the lectures to be given by professionals from agencies, companies, and media organizations. I assign them their topic some two months in advance, require them to make it as visual as possible (film, commercials, tapes, slides, whatever) and ask that all material become the property of the university at the end of the lecture. In this way I build our library of current materials, which are then available to any other professor for other courses. We have had excellent cooperation from the pros in this effort.

CONCLUSIONS

The study indicates that the purely practical how-to-do-it emphasis in the introduction to advertising course is not as popular as a more theoretical approach among the teachers of the course. The number of respondents who chose the combination approach slightly outnumbered both the others added together.

Most teachers responding to the survey indicated that they introduce their students to practical layout and writing problems, and even let them try their hands at some writing, layout, and campaign assignments.

TABLE 29

Number of Professors Requiring Certain Assignments

Assignment	Yes	No
writing ad copy	64	37
making ad layouts	58	44
planning a campaign	54	48
preparing ads for a campaign	43	58

But they viewed this as giving the students an opportunity to "get their feet wet" in advertising, not as an attempt to produce copy writers or layout artists of even minimal proficiency.

In short, the respondents viewed the introductory course as just that--an introduction to advertising.

THE TEACHING OF ADVERTISING IN BUSINESS SCHOOLS AND JOURNALISM/COMMUNICATION SCHOOLS: A COMPARISON

by
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Advertising in the educational curriculum of universities and colleges in the United States has evolved over time from heavy representation in journalism settings to business settings back to journalism settings and is now moving into colleges of communication.

The purpose of this paper is to consider the similarities and differences in approaches to the teaching of advertising as found in business schools and journalism schools. Comparison will be based on a consideration of basic advertising courses offered at the undergraduate and graduate level.

SIMILARITIES IN APPROACHES

In both the business and journalism settings the basic courses on the undergraduate and graduate level are similar in several ways.

First, the majority of these courses will stress the purposes, objectives, strategies and classifications of advertising and the use of agencies and media. These basic topics of the advertising process form a major portion of the subject matter in introductory courses. Examples utilized in class to illustrate the points will vary with the background of the instructor but the basic themes remain the same.

Second, the assumption underlying the basic courses on both undergraduate and graduate level is that this represents the first exposure of students to advertising. Given this is the student's first exposure, problems relating to misconceptions, myths, and negative attitudes and opinions concerning advertising must be considered. Many students take advertising due to a fascination with the topic. A fascination often built on misconceptions generated by the mass media.

Finally, especially on the undergraduate level, some of the students enrolled in the course will be from outside the business or journalism school. Their motivation for electing the course may be curiousity, random choice, an easy grade, or interest in the subject matter. They represent a special challenge to the instructors in the course because they have no common background or orientation.

DIFFERENCES IN APPROACHES

Advertising as taught in business and journalism schools is differentiated by such considerations as: 1) differences in the student audience; 2) differences in the background of the instructors; and 3) differences in the approach to and emphasis on course content.

Student Audience

The differences in approach found in business and journalism courses is in large measure attributable to the differences in the audience.

In an undergraduate school or college of business, students will have the option of majoring in one of four to six functional business fields. (The most commonly offered functional fields include Accounting, Economics, Finance, Management, Marketing, and Quantitative Methods.) Advertising, in the majority of business schools and colleges, is not offered as a major. (Based on a survey of the catalogs of 625 four-year schools and colleges of business. Of this number only 69 (11%) offered a major in advertising.) The undergraduate business student may often take only one advertising course. This will represent his entire formal exposure to the area. While the student may elect only one course, this does not mean undergraduate departments limit themselves to only one advertising course. In some business offerings as many as four advertising courses are offered on the undergraduate level. (Of the 625 schools and colleges surveyed: 125 (20%) offered two advertising courses; 106 (17%) offered three advertising courses; and 25 (4%) offered four or more courses.) Generally, these are part of the program of the Department of Marketing and are offered as electives. In addition, some of the courses are actually duplicates of offerings in the Journalism Department. (Of the 625 schools and colleges surveyed: 61 offered a second advertising course jointly with journalism; 82 offered at least one of the three advertising courses available jointly with journalism; and nine offered at least one of the four or more advertising courses available jointly with journalism.) The student will register under the marketing course number but will actually be a member of the journalism class. This is primarily true for courses offered beyond the basic course, but normally not for the basic course itself. The prerequisite for the basic advertising course in a business school is generally a principles of marketing course.

At the graduate level, the majority of business students are pursuing the MBA degree. In such master's programs, the course offering in advertising is generally limited to one course, (Of the 625 schools and colleges surveyed 487 had graduate programs. Of the 487, 410 offered a graduate level advertising course. Of the remaining 77, 49 allowed interested students to take an undergraduate advertising course.) though not all MBA programs offer a graduate level advertising course. In such situations, the student is often allowed to take an undergraduate course to satisfy his interest in the area.

On both the undergraduate and graduate level, the vast majority of the students will be taking only one advertising course while journalism students may take several specialized courses dealing with different aspects of advertising. For the average business student, advertising is not viewed as a career, but rather as part of the total marketing mix which must be managed. Therefore, he is more interested in managing advertising as a tool rather than in knowing how to actually plan, develop, and implement a campaign. Given the interest of this type of student as the main audience, the business advertising course is designed to meet these special needs. Many journalism students, on the other hand, will be working either directly in advertising or in jobs that require a practical understanding of the actual development of the advertising campaign. The journalism student, through his selection of an advertising major, has specifically indicated his interest in being a technician and/or practitioner in a specialized field. This makes for a special audience in terms of advertising courses to be taught.

Background of Instructors

Individuals found teaching in undergraduate and graduate business schools and colleges tend to have strong business backgrounds, but not necessarily in the advertising area. Preparation for teaching has come from graduate education in business and economics most likely, work experience in the business sector, or a combination of these. The instructor is normally part of the marketing or management faculty and is expected to teach a variety of courses including advertising. Due to the limited number of advertising courses taught at both the undergraduate and graduate level in the business schools, instructors teaching in this setting do not usually cite advertising as their only or major teaching interest. To have such a defined interest would normally cause an instructor to seek a position in a journalism or communication college where he could develop his expertise in depth.

The approach instructors use in teaching the subject reflects their interest in the topic, their other business interests, their background, and the needs of the students. Due to the need to keep current in a field which changes as fast as advertising, some instructors who have little interest in the topic to begin with find the job of teaching an advertising course to be a burden. In comparison, the instructor in the journalism advertising course has normally been a practitioner or is currently a practitioner in addition to his teaching and research function. His selection of a journalism school as his base of operation indicates his teaching interest. The range of subjects he will be called upon to teach will be more closely related to advertising than is often the case for his counter part in the marketing or management setting. His teaching style is the result of his background, his research interests, his consulting activities, and the needs of his students. The business instructor can be expected to take a management approach while the journalism instructor will take a practitioner's approach.

Course Content and Approach

Within the advertising courses the content and approach emphasized also differentiate the business from the journalism offering. These differences include: 1) degree of orientation to the management of advertising as a tool in a company's promotional mix rather than an emphasis on designing and developing advertising from a practitioner's point-of-view; 2) variations in the indepth development of various topic areas covered; 3) required demonstrations by the student of expertise developed as a result of exposure to course materials; and 4) emphasis on local/regional versus national advertising planning.

In business advertising courses the emphasis is on the management of advertising as a tool. Advertising is viewed as one of the tools available to management in shaping the marketing strategies to achieve stated goals and objectives. The relationship of advertising to other tools available, its relative cost-benefit, its advantages and limitations in various situations, and its over-all potential contribution to the success of the firm in reaching its goals are key considerations. Given that the business student may take only one advertising course, it is vital the orientation be toward determination of the job to be done, determination of its cost in relation to its contribution, determination of appropriate personnel, and evaluation of the results. The view is one of managing and evaluating a function performed by experts not one of performing the function himself. Seeing advertising as part of a larger management/marketing mix is the desirable end result of the course. Students who develop an interest in the practitioner's role as a result of the course would be expected to seek out additional courses, most likely in the journalism or communication college.

In journalism advertising courses the orientation is to a practitioner's understanding of the development of advertising and less emphasis on how advertising fits into the overall scheme of things. The journalism student will most likely take several specialized courses which get into the particular areas such as layout, print media, electronic or broadcast media, photography, as well as many other areas. In the basic course, therefore, emphasis is on developing a basic understanding of the practitioner's role and function.

The differences in orientation translate into variations in the indepth development of the various topic areas covered in the basic courses. The business approach is one of surveying the major areas of advertising as it relates to management in a business setting. Because this may be the only exposure a student has, an effort is made to cover as many facets as possible. Yet, due to time constraints, no sufficient indepth examination is possible. The end result is an overview of advertising as a management tool. The text selected for the course will reflect both the management orientation and the survey approach. (Texts by Wright, Warner and Winter and Dorothy Cohen are representative of the type of book favored in undergraduate and graduate business advertising courses.) The basic journalism advertising course also takes an overview approach. But the difference lies in the fact that the majority of topics touched on in the basic course will be developed in advanced courses. Those topics which are developed in depth in the basic courses are ones which will serve as foundations for the advanced courses. The texts adopted for the basic courses also reflect the practitioner's orientation and are written on the premise that the student is beginning a course of study which will be implemented by more indepth coverage at a later time. (Texts by Sandage and Fryburger, Dunn and Barban, and Otto Kleppner are representative of the type of book favored in undergraduate and graduate journalism advertising courses.)

The orientation and depth exhibited by the basic courses leads to different requirements in terms of demonstrations by students in the form of semester projects. Given the heavy orientation in business advertising courses toward management of advertising as a tool and its role in the overall goal attainment of the company, it is not surprising that required demonstrations generally take the form of case analysis. The case approach is suited to the treatment of advertising in a management setting. The interrelation of advertising with other areas of the firm, its cost as related to benefits, its advantages and limitations in various settings, and the evaluation of it as a tool can be treated effectively in the case situation. The instructor is generally comfortable with the case approach and finds it suitable as a teaching tool. The students are also generally familiar with the case approach since it is often used in other business courses. The semester project or several smaller projects assigned throughout the semester is more often found in the journalism course. Here, where the emphasis is on the practitioner, the project is best suited to translating theory into actual practice. The individual assignments throughout the semester can be effectively utilized by the instructor to emphasize various aspects of the basic course and to give the student a "hands-on" feel for the topics. The case approach favored in business schools is less suited in the journalism setting where a more specialized approach to the topic is desirable. The student and in some cases the instructor does not feel as comfortable with the case method as with the project approach. The business instructor generally experiences the reverse situation.

A final area of difference in course content and approach relates to the emphasis on local, regional and national advertising. The orientation in the basic course in undergraduate and graduate business settings is toward the large national firm and its use of national advertising as a management tool. The orientation in most business schools is toward the problems and activities of large corporations. The tactics, strategies and theories developed and studied reflect this orientation. It is often assumed that if the tactics, strategies and theories are developed for large corporations, they can be modified for use by smaller firms. Problems and information relating to regional or local business are normally relegated to one or two chapters in basic marketing and management texts. It is only natural given the orientation and interests and backgrounds of the faculty teaching the course that the emphasis in the advertising course is on national advertising and advertisers. Information on the activities of large corporations is often readily available and the excitement of discussing a firm spending over 100 million dollars a year on advertising seems greater than discussing a firm who has 40 thousand dollars to spend. Given the nature of the business student, especially at the graduate level, their career goals often relate to employment with large corporations and their interest is in the problems of these corporations.

The journalism student will, on the other hand, be exposed to a great deal of information relating to local and regional advertising. Many of these students already work or will work in locally oriented media, in advertising agencies serving a variety of companies, or in local and regional companies. They are less likely to have career goals involving eventual employment with large national corporations. Specialized advanced courses will especially focus on local media and the development of local and regional advertising campaigns. Instructors in the journalism courses are often experienced in local or regional media, local or regional agencies, and local or regional companies. The geographic orientation of the courses then, becomes a function of: 1) student career orientation and 2) instructor orientation and experience.

In summary it may be said that the advertising taught today in business and journalism oriented settings is similar in some ways. The detailing of purposes, objectives, strategies, classifications, use of agencies, and use of media is usually found in courses taught in both settings. But the offerings also differ in many ways. The differences include: 1) degree of orientation to the management of advertising as a tool in a company's promotional mix rather than an emphasis on designing and developing advertising from a practitioner's point-of-view; 2) variations in the indepth development in the various topic areas covered; 3) required demonstrations by the student of expertise developed as a result of exposure to course materials--the form of semester projects varies widely; and 4) emphasis on local/regional versus national advertising planning. The difference in approach is in large measure attributable to the differences in audience. In the business school setting the vast majority of the students will be taking only one advertising course while the journalism student may take several specialized courses dealing with different aspects of advertising. For the average business student advertising is not viewed as a career, but rather as part of the total marketing mix which must be managed. Therefore, he is more interested in managing advertising as a tool rather than in knowing how to actually plan, develop, and implement a campaign. Given the interest of this type of student as the main audience, the business advertising course is designed to meet these special needs. Many journalism students, on the other hand, will be working either directly in advertising or in jobs that require a practical understanding of the actual development of the advertising campaign. The instructor in the business advertising course will almost certainly have a strong business background, but not necessarily in the advertising area. The approach business instructors use in teaching the subject reflects their background and the needs of the students. The instructor in the journalism advertising course has normally been a practitioner or is currently a practitioner in addition to his teaching and research function. His teaching style is therefore a result of his background and the needs of his students.

To date there has not been a vast amount of communication between the two different advertising education groups. Increased communication could benefit both groups in terms of a sharing of attitudes, techniques, and philosophies, and the possible evolution of advertising as a more unified body of theory and practice.

This increased communication could be brought about in many ways:

1) More contact on individual campuses between people teaching advertising in business-journalism-communication settings. This could be done informally or through faculty seminars.

2) More contact within advertising associations (such as the AAA) between individuals teaching in business and journalism. The tendency at meetings to seek out only those who teach in similar settings compounds the communication problem. Panel discussion, such as this one, involving people from different settings is a good starting point for further contact.

3) Joint sponsorship of ADS and GAX chapters by both business and journalism groups in an informal if not formal arrangement.

4) Joint research projects among faculty with different backgrounds and interests involving problems commonly recognized.

5) More interdisciplinary flavor in journals.

Closer working relationships between teachers of advertising can aid in enhancing the role of advertising as an academic field.

ADVERTISING EDUCATION: A REAL WORLD CLIENT/COMPETITIVE MODEL

by
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In most areas of study there is usually a controversy between people who teach in the discipline and those who practice the discipline. This is certainly true in the field of advertising. To establish this point the following statements have been selected as fairly representative of both sides of the controversy.

> The valuable advertising graduate is one with a broad professional interest in business, with the ability to identify the root cause of a problem. An agency is made up partly of extremely talented specialists, such as artists and writers but for the student who is not an artist or writer, a narrow specialized education will not fill the bill. Agencies now are looking for the student with a professional interest in business who is well prepared and generally grounded in theory, if not in practical aspects (underlining added for emphasis). (Jones, 1970)

> The quality of advertising education has no doubt improved the most by changing the basic vocational approach to the teaching of advertising to the more theoretical approach. It should be said that many prospective employers of our graduates still feel that the nuts-and-bolts approach is best. In fact, it is not unusual to hear advertising education criticized at meetings of professional practitioners for the lack of teaching the nuts-and-bolts. (Ross, 1973)

> Many students have a narrow perspective of marketing and do not appreciate that advertising is one facet of the marketing mix.... Many programs tend to make technicians of their graduates. These students try to quantify advertising rather than develop the creative aspects.... Education programs in advertising are aimed in the majority at developing generalists. Yet business needs many advertising specialists. (Montana, 1973)

> Applicants from school for junior positions--for instance in media--know how to punch out a reach and frequency result from a computer. But very few of these people understand the concepts involved and are unable to recognize when the result is sensible or when it is in error. (Zeltner, 1973)

> Advertising education is healthy. The graduates of advertising programs throughout the country are well prepared to move rapidly and effectively into the advertising business, especially with agencies. The long-time controversey over the educational issue of 'theory and philosophy vs. trade school approach' is dead. There is room for both in today's educational process. (Christian, 1973)

The above statements from educators and practitioners demonstrate the diversity of opinion that still exists in advertising education. Some practitioners and educators desire specialists and some desire generalists. However, there appears to be more of a consensus among educators and practitioners than meets the eye. In a study conducted by Moore and Leckenby (1973) among advering educators, students and practitioners the results of a questionnaire (see Table 1) dealing with the objectives of an advertising curriculum illustrate a rather parallel viewpoint between educator and practitioner.

TABLE 1

Possible Objectives of Advertising Programs*

	Students	Practitioners	Educators
Preparing students for first job in advertising	4	4	4
Preparing students for long range careers	1	2	2
Teaching students latest advertising approaches	2	5	5
Providing student with training and judgment in problem solving	3	1	1
Giving the student an appreciation of the field of advertising in general	5	3	3

---

*Rankings based upon mean rankings for each group
1 = Most important; 5 = least important

Thus the divergence in opinion among practitioners and educators appears to be with the methods of achieving the objectives rather than the objectives themselves. This is illustrated in TABLE 2 drawn from the Moore and Leckenby study.

TABLE 2

Areas of Content for an Advertising Sequence
(1 - Very Important) Mean Comparison

	Practitioners	Educators	Students
INSTITUTIONAL CONCEPTS			
Advertising History	3.5	3.4	3.8
Advertising & Society	2.3	2.0^{c*}	2.6
Advertising & the Economy	1.7^{b*}	2.1	2.5
GROUP MEAN	2.5	2.5	2.9
THE PROCESS			
Advertising Organization	2.8	2.5	2.4
Advertising Research	1.8	1.9	2.0
Art and Layout	2.0^{a*}	2.6^{c*}	2.0
Copywriting	1.6	2.0^{**}	1.3
Legal Aspects of Advertising	2.1	2.4	2.4
Mechanical Production	2.3^{a**}	3.3^{c**}	2.3
Media Planning	1.8	1.9	1.4
Radio-TV Advertising	1.7	2.1	1.8
Retail Advertising	1.9^{a*}	2.5	2.1
GROUP MEAN	2.0	2.35	1.96
RELATED AREAS			
Consumer Behavior	1.4	1.6	1.7
Communications Theory	2.0^{b**}	2.4	3.0
Computer Technology	3.3	3.2	3.6
Magazine Article Writing	3.3^{a*}	4.0	3.6
Marketing Concepts	1.4	1.8	1.8
Photography	3.1	3.4^{c**}	2.7
Public Relations	2.2	2.7	2.6
GROUP MEAN	2.38	2.72	2.71

NOTE: a = Practitioner-Educator Comparison
b = Practitioner-Student Comparison
c = Educator-Student Comparison
**significant difference at .01 level
*significant difference at .05 level

Perhaps part of the divergence of opinion as to what should be included in advertising education is due in part to the diverse backgrounds practitioners have. John Crichton, President of the American Association of Advertising Agencies presented the results of a survey he conducted (1972) to a symposium which honored Charles H. Sandage of the University of Illinois upon his retirement from teaching. The survey was taken from 485 agency personnel in 48 offices of 31 larger agencies. The results of his survey (see Appendix) highlight the diversity of backgrounds among agency personnel. Depending on the area a practitioner works in (the executive group, media/research group, contact/marketing group, or creative group) the undergraduate training is quite different. Therefore, one might suspect this training difference would contribute much to the disagreement as to the methods of best preparing a student for a career in advertising.

Two points should be made from these studies. First, from the results of the Moore and Leckenby study the educators and practitioners appear to agree that a broader based curriculum is needed. Note the importance attached to areas such as consumer behavior, marketing concepts, research and retail advertising in Table 2. Second, the Crichton study suggests that a variety of majors will suffice as an educational background for entering advertising. However, it is believed by the writers that the objective ranked first in the Moore-Leckenby study (see Table 1) points to the need for advertising curricula to be more integrative and not just broader in scope. Dunn (1967) details the objectives of a curriculum that appears to be integrative in purpose:

1. To develop the student's skills as analyst, decision-maker, and planner in advertising and related communication fields.
2. To familiarize the student with the newest tools of analysis and decision-making (behavioral science, mathematics, computers, etc.) and provide an understanding of their use in advertising.
3. To help students comprehend the relevance of social sciences, humanities and physical sciences in advertising theory and practice.
4. To equip the student with enough knowledge of practice in advertising and information-gathering techniques that he is ready to work effectively in putting advertising into practice.
5. To equip students with a basic understanding of our social and economic order and the governmental climate in which advertising operates.
6. To develop the students' power of innovation and creative thinking.
7. To educate the full meaning in the liberal tradition but keyed to a professional advertising purpose.

The question is, can present methods of teaching advertising accomplish the goals of producing specialists, generalists and integratively oriented students? The traditional methods of lecture/class discussion, term paper, game theory, and case analysis all have their shortcomings. Perhaps the severest shortcoming is the lack of student initiative, involvement and responsibility for integrating a total campaign in a real-world setting. One method which might meet this criticism is the "real-world client/competitive" model (Professor Norton Sabo of The American Institute for Foreign Trade utilizes an approach he calls the "agency approach" which is quite similar to the client/competitive model. Advertising Age, September 2, 1968.) which is the focus of the remainder of this paper.

THE CLIENT/COMPETITIVE MODEL

The authors have been friends for over ten years and teaching colleagues for most of that time. Both have taught and experimented with advertising courses. We think that the heart of much of the controversies of education of any kind seems to boil down to the conflict between efficiency and effectiveness. The efficiency criterion of advertising education refers to the number of students taught per education dollar. This approach suggests cramming as many students into the classroom as the faculty member (and students themselves) can tolerate. The effectiveness criterion refers to how well the educational process prepares the advertising student to enter the business world and be of value to an organization. Obviously we are looking for some level of optimization where we can effectively instruct our students and be efficient at the same time.

Alternative Teaching Modes

For each faculty representative here today there is probably at least one teaching style in the classroom and maybe two or three. The options open to us as educators include, among other things, lectures, discussions, computer games, term papers, problems, cases, hypothetical projects and real client-oriented projects. Each educator has his own way of disseminating knowledge to the student. It is probably safe to say that there is no one best method for all professors as there is no one best method of learning for all students. (An extensive study about how managers learn is in progress at the Massachusett Institute of Technology. See: David A. Kolb, "On Management and the Learning Process," Working Paper, Alfred P. Sloan School of Management, March, 1973. The researcher contends learning consists of a multi-cyclical process and is empirically investigating an experiential model of learning.)

The reality of the matter is that some combination of two or more of the above styles would lead to the optimization of learning given the efficiency/effectiveness criteria. The authors propose, as a major part of a basic advertising course, (Note that our perspective is a School of Business where there is one--two at most--courses in advertising. The students have virtually no background, academic or practical, in the field at all.) a real-world client/competitive model for advertising education. We feel that this approach enhances the educational process in three important ways:

> First, it aids in closing the gap between educators and practitioners and their perceptions, attitudes and behaviors in and about the advertising world. It accomplishes this through experiential learning, not only for the student, but for the faculty member and practitioner alike. This is because the model necessitates the interaction of these three actors in the learning process.
>
> Second, it motivates students to take the initiative and to accept the responsibility for actually solving a problem. Much of our education today is passive rather than active. Our students are required to read the principles, understand the concepts and feed them back on some kind of examination. Rarely are they challenged to read the principles, understand the concepts and take the responsibility for implementing the concepts to solve somebody's actual problem or problems.
>
> Third, the students are evaluated based on their performance and the results which they produce. This evaluation is performed by their peers, the faculty member and the client for whom the students work. They get real-world feedback about their ability to solve an advertising problem.

How the Model Works

Prior to the development of campaign projects, students are given theoretical and conceptual imput about the nature of advertising management. This is done through a variety of means including lecturettes, discussions, cases, books, articles and so on. The theory input is minimized due to the concentrated amount of time in which it is disseminated. The project takes about 60 percent of the semester's time.

At the initial stage of the campaign projects, the students are informed of the clients for whom they will be working. The clients are directly solicited by the faculty member. Depending on the size of the class, two to four competitive groups are formed for each of the client projects. Each group forms its own advertising agency with various members having responsibility for management, media, creative and research activities. All of the groups for each client meet together, initially. Here the client presents the situational analysis, or at least the beginnings of it. The agencies learn the history of the company, the marketing and promotion objectives and then the specific task for the semester. From that point on, the groups meet with the client individually whenever they see fit.

The students then develop a total promotional campaign for the client to meet the agreed upon objectives. The competitive presentations are made orally at the end of the semester with the client, the faculty member and various members of the advertising community judging which agency in each project "receives the account." Then written projects are turned into the client and the faculty member for the academic evaluation of the course. Although in the past, specific campaign formats have not been required, it is suggested to each agency that their final projects follow this format:

1. Analysis of the situation--nature of the market, the product and the customer.

2. Determination of marketing, promotion and specific campaign objectives.

3. Determination of a budget. The client may give the agency a specific budget or a range within which to work. The students then determine how much of that range they will spend.

4. Develop a media plan and schedule.

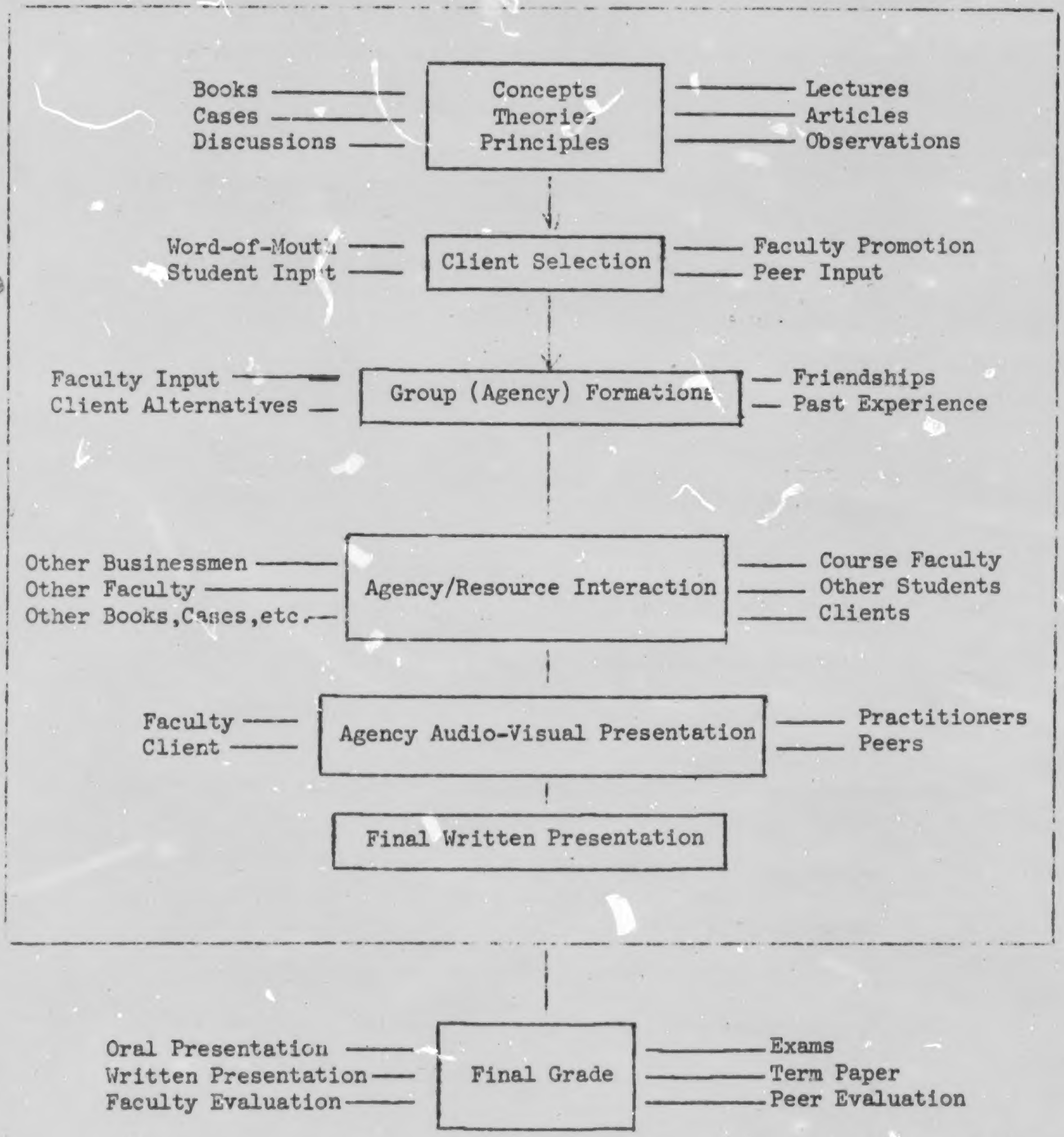
5. Develop a creative strategy with specific spots and insertions.

6. Coordinate the campaign with the other marketing mix variables of the firm.

7. Establish a plan for measuring the effectiveness of their suggested campaign should the client implement it.

In sum, Figure 1 presents the steps involved in the teaching model:

FIGURE 1


Books
Cases
Discussions
Concepts
Theories
Principles
Lectures
Articles
Observations
Word-of-Mouth
Student Input
Client Selection
Faculty Promotion
Peer Input
Faculty Input
Client Alternatives
Group (Agency) Formations
Friendships
Past Experience
Other Businessmen
Other Faculty
Other Books, Cases, etc.
Agency/Resource Interaction
Course Faculty
Other Students
Clients
Faculty
Client
Agency Audio-Visual Presentation
Practitioners
Peers
Final Written Presentation
Oral Presentation
Written Presentation
Faculty Evaluation
Final Grade
Exams
Term Paper
Peer Evaluation

STEPS IN DEVELOPING REAL-WORLD CLIENT/COMPETITIVE TEACHING MODEL

Processing and Evaluating the Agencies

The problems of this approach start with the development of the agencies. Some client projects are much more appealing to the students than others. To date the most democratic, although not always the most efficient, way to form the groups is to let the students decide which project they want. What usually happens is that informal groups are formed and vie for a particular project client. Individuals who have no preference for either working with a particular group of peers or with a particular client, are placed into project teams where there is space.

Students are evaluated all through the semester by their agency peers. This evaluation includes such dimensions as attendance at meetings, creative contributions and completion of tasks assigned. At least four group evaluations are administered throughout the semester. At the end of the semester, peer evaluation comes in terms of the individual's evaluation of him- or herself as well as the evaluation of the group's members. Serious evaluative deviations are handled in small group conferences with the faculty member.

One agency from each project is awarded the account. Evaluation is performed by the client, the faculty member and one or two other advertising practitioners. The final written project is evaluated by the faculty member. A student's grade is determined mostly by the faculty member's evaluation of all of the semester's work and in part by peer evaluations for contributions toward the project. Practitioner evaluation only comes in at the oral presentations but does not count in the grades. Both the authors and practitioners are constantly amazed at the professionalism of the oral presentations even though they are not graded (something about pride, ego and future job potential)!

Pros and Cons of the Model

Many diverse business and public organizations have taken part in this approach to advertising education. Among the past and present clients:

Client Name	Business/Project Area
Sea-Breeze Fish Company	Fish Processor
Holiday Inn	Motor Inn
Howard Johnson's	Motor Inn
Quality Inn	Motor Inn
Valley View Shopping Center	Regional Shopping Center
Old Town Village	Strip Shopping Center
Republic National Bank	Bank
Fair Park National Bank	Bank
Eugene Frazier Studio	Corporate Decoration
Jefferson Insurance Company	Hospitalization Insurance
CondoLease, Incorporated	CondoVilla Leasing
Dinner Theaters, Inc.	Playhouse-restaurant
SNH Distributors	Hot Beverage Machine
Dallas Police Department	Minority Recruiting
Next Door Restaurant	Family Restaurant
Extremultus, Inc.	Conveyor Belts and Drive Chains
Wall Street Journal	Subscriptions and Space

The advantages of this model over other teaching methods are:

1. It is real and experiential.
2. It forces a socialization process among the students which they will experience in the business/advertising world.
3. It is ambiguous enough that it is frustrating and challenging for the students.
4. It motivates the students because of its competitive nature and its potential for ego-satisfaction.
5. It is well accepted by many business community participants.
6. It forces interaction among students and faculty; students and practitioners; students and students; and faculty and practitioners.
7. It gives students a sense of responsibility and a feeling of accomplishment.
8. It produces a tremendous amount of faculty satisfaction that students are learning something that they might retain--a process.
9. It leads to high teacher-course evaluations.
10. It leads to potential consulting.

The disadvantages of this model are:

1. It is extremely time-consuming for students, faculty and practitioners, in that order.
2. Students often prefer to do their own work and not rely on other people.
3. Students do not like to evaluate each other.
4. Some clients are unrealistic in their expectations.
5. Some students are put on projects they dislike or with people they dislike (not too unrealistic from the business world).

All in all we feel that this approach, particularly when combined with other teaching approaches, is very effective. It does lack somewhat in efficiency even though the class can be as large as 60 and still be implemented effectively. With the client/competitive model, the gaps and controversies of advertising education can be narrowed if not completely closed. But it takes commitment--by students, by faculty and by practitioners. But at the end of the semester, all of that commitment seems very worthwhile!

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Appendix

TABLE I

Executive Group - Undergraduate Major

	Total	Up to 49	50 and Over
English	31 (32%)	14 (32%)	17 (31%)
Economics	19 (19)	6 (14)	13 (24)
Business Administration	10 (10)	4 (9)	6 (11)
Journalism	10 (10)	3 (7)	7 (13)
History	8 (8)	4 (9)	4 (7)
Psychology	6 (6)	4 (9)	2 (4)
Political Science	6 (6)	0 (0)	6 (11)
Engineering	5 (5)	3 (7)	2 (4)
Advertising	4 (4)	0 (0)	4 (7)
Liberal Arts	4 (4)	1 (2)	3 (6)
Mathematics	4 (4)	1 (2)	3 (6)
Marketing	3 (3)	1 (2)	2 (4)
Sociology	2 (2)	0 (0)	2 (4)
Philosophy	2 (2)	1 (2)	1 (2)
Science	2 (2)	0 (0)	2 (4)
International	2 (2)	2 (5)	0 (0)
(6 other subjects mentioned once)			

TABLE II

Executive Group - Graduate Major

	Total	Up to 49	50 and Over
	(27)	(16)	(11)
Marketing	8 (30%)	5 (31%)	3 (27%)
Economics	3 (11)	2 (13)	1 (9)
English	2 (7)	2 (13)	0 (0)
Law	2 (7)	0 (0)	2 (18)

Once: Engineering
Finance
History
Architecture
Motion Picture Production
Classics
Statistics
Business
Retailing
Advertising
Management
Diplomatic Service

TABLE III

Creative Group - Undergraduate Major

	Total (73)	Up to 49 (54)	50 and Over (19)
English	30 (41%)	16 (30%)	14 (74%)
Art and Design	11 (15)	6 (11)	5 (26)
Advertising and Marketing	8 (11)	6 (11)	2 (11)
Journalism	8 (11)	8 (15)	0 (0)
Drama	4 (5)	4 (7)	0 (0)
History	4 (5)	4 (7)	0 (0)
Economics	2 (3)	1 (2)	1 (5)
Philosophy	2 (3)	1 (2)	1 (5)
Music	2 (3)	1 (2)	1 (5)
Business Administration	2 (3)	1 (2)	1 (5)

Once: Fashion Biology German
Communications Theology

TABLE IV

Media/Research Group - Undergraduate Major

	Total (70)	Up to 49 (56)	50 and Over (14)
Advertising and Marketing	14 (20%)	12 (21%)	2 (14%)
Psychology	10 (14)	8 (14)	2 (14)
English	9 (13)	6 (11)	3 (21)
Journalism	7 (10)	7 (12)	0 (0)
Mathematics and Statistics	7 (10)	6 (11)	1 (7)
Economics	5 (7)	2 (4)	3 (21)
Business	5 (7)	2 (4)	3 (21)
History	5 (7)	5 (10)	0 (0)
Engineering	3 (4)	2 (4)	1 (7)

Once: Accounting Geology Fine Arts Science

TABLE V

Contact/Marketing Group - Undergraduate Major

	Total (44)	Up to 49 (34)	50 and Over (10)
Advertising and Marketing	10 (23%)	9 (26%)	1 (10%)
Economics	7 (16)	5 (15)	2 (20)
Business Administration	5 (11)	4 (12)	1 (10)
English	5 (11)	2 (6)	3 (30)
Journalism	4 (9)	3 (9)	1 (10)
Political Science	4 (9)	4 (12)	0 (0)
Psychology	2 (5)	2 (6)	0 (0)
Mathematics	2 (5)	2 (6)	0 (0)
History	2 (5)	0 (0)	2 (20)

Once: Sociology Geology Architecture Market Research

EVOLUTION OF AN EMPHASIS

by

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At the beginning of the academic year 1973-74, it became necessary to examine the Advertising Emphasis of the Communications Department at California State College-Fullerton. It had been evolving, but from whence and whither? Although enjoying continuing increases in enrollment, the university found that more and more students were taking fewer and fewer courses, which had a very unsettling effect upon budget considerations. All of the schools and departments of the university were faced with the burden of doing more with less, a problem not unique to California. It had been hoped that the advertising emphasis could be revised and enriched during this period of growth. It was clear that any enrichment and revision would have to be done within the constraints of very limited funding and without expansion of physical facilities. The first task in setting up guidelines for systematic evolution appeared to be an analysis of trends in advertising education, particularly in the west. Another task was an attempt to redefine "advertising education" in view of the rapidly changing nature of the business and the organization of its functions.

During this period of economic and political disruption, any attempt to identify "trends" in institutional activities can be an exercise in frustration. Even the most zealous champions of the merging science of forecasting and trend projection (Herman Kahn and the Futurist Society among them) are quick to admit that surprise-free constants are hard to come by these days, and that variables are ever more various. Trend analysis in education at any level cannot escape this acceleration of unpredictables, and analysis of advertising curricula in higher education is particularly difficult. This is largely due to the unique relationship of advertising education and the profession which it serves.

Wright, Warner and Winter[1] point out that advertising can be viewed primarily in terms of what it designed to accomplish (its functions), or as a socioeconomic institution when viewed in the aggregate or abstract sense. In the light of the growth of consumerism, regulatory encroachment, increasing concern with the effects of advertising upon society as a whole and upon children in particular, it seems clear that any definition of advertising must include both the functional and socioeconomic aspects. This greatly enlarges the scope of advertising education to include the considerations of responsibility and accountability by the advertising community not only to its regulatory bodies, but to government and to an increasingly aware consumer.

In fact, this larger view of advertising has already had measurable impact upon the related curricula of colleges and universities. This paper will review some of the trends that appear to be emerging, limiting its scope to emphasis upon advertising education in the west, and not some surprising innovations found in the curricula of California Junior Colleges and in a growing number of secondary school.

In February, 1965, Conrad Hill characterized advertising education as the "Pariah of Academe" in an article for Saturday Review. From his vantage point as assistant professor of advertising in the School of Business, Western Michigan University, Hill noted that there was strong resistance to the very idea of undergraduate education in advertising by both practitioners and by academics in more traditional disciplines. Hill suggested that both tend to perpetuate the unrealistic notion that there are two kinds of advertising: one for buyers of advertising and one for the creators of advertising, with business schools seen as training future buyers and journalism schools more involved with the creators. Professor Hill's suggested remedy for this schism called for (1) consolidation of advertising course offerings into one department (either business or journalism), (2) pruning and consolidation of splintered courses, with a concurrent encouragement of the student to study related Liberal Arts areas, and (3) a closer relationship between educator and practitioner which might take the form of scholarships, internships and teaching aids.

The schism is still very much in evidence, but several developments have taken place in the past decade, and some continue in process which indicate that winds of change are springing up in advertising education.

Many current advertising professionals still profess that little has taken place to correct the duality of advertising education. Herbert Zeltner[3] of Needham, Harper and Steers told the American Academy of Advertising's National Conference for University professors of Advertising as recently as March of 1973 that the agency world was still plagued with young job applicants who were either overskilled with management training, or overtrained with trade school skills.

Perhaps even more damning was his observation that many younger advertising aspirants lacked the basic abilities of fundamental arithmetic and English composition. This suggests that many of our university and college graduates have been getting fairly sound training in how to run an agency but don't know how to work in one, or that they know how to do well some particular thing in the advertising process, but haven't the faintest idea why they are doing it. Zeltner's observations are supported by many in the advertising field, and certainly seem to give current credence to Professor Hill's "buyer-creator" dichotomy. At the same time, Hill saw in 1965 a trend to a more "institutionalized" advertising industry, whereas increasing numbers of advertising professionals now see the advertising world becoming more fragmented and specialized, with the agency itself providing not a "full-service" function (including the creative software) as in the past, but "strategic counsel," with many functions farmed out to specialized sub-systems.[4] We have witnessed a definite movement toward the goals outlined by Hill in the areas of curriculum consolidation and closer practitioner-educator cooperation. This can be seen in rapid growth of the American Academy of Advertising to a membership of over 350 advertising educators, and the close cooperation and support of the American Association of Advertising Agencies, particularly the Educational Foundation, established in 1967.

Beyond the more inclusive, multi-disciplinary definition of advertising used here, it is necessary to view the components of the functional elements of the industry in its several dimensions. The industry can be viewed as a pyramid whose four faces represent the components of the advertising agency, the advertiser/client, the media and support/service functions (including advertising education). At the top third of the pyramid we can see the giants; the A.A.A.A. agencies, the corporate conglomerates, the networks and publishing empires, and finally the service companies and schools (Metromedia and Harvard) whose reputation and product give them top nationally recognized status. The middle third represents sizeable but more regional organizations, and the bottom third the local, more limited and specialized elements. Obviously there is less room at the top than at the bottom. Nationally, the gloomiest reports of opportunity for the advertising graduate appear to concern the top third of the pyramid, particularly with the larger New York advertising agency. In view of the fact that considerably less than fifty percent of the nation's advertising activity originates in New York, this gloomy outlook appears unreal, especially when the healthy growth of advertising agencies in the South, Mid-West and West is considered. New York City may still be "Mecca" to many, but for the ambitious and talented there is strong evidence that much of the action is now largely elsewhere. It can be concluded that there is room at some level and in some function of the components of our advertising pyramid for the increasing numbers of students electing advertising as a career field.

To put a review of trends in advertising education in the west in some measurable context, a look at the national picture is in order. The 1973-74 annual study of College and University enrollments in America done by Garland Parker[5] published in the February, 1974 issue of Intellect is perhaps the most comprehensive, certainly the most recent, indicator of enrollments nationally. Parker finds that in spite of dour predictions by some commentators and commissions the grand total of 1,416 four-year institutions surveyed reached a student enrollment level of 6,454,137. This is an overall increase of 1.8% for the nine higher education classifications used. Highest percentages of increase over 1972-73 were in law, medicine and allied health institutions (11.6%) followed by the fifteen unitary state systems (3.9%). Lowest enrollment percentages of increase found in the schools specializing in the arts and sciences (.1%).

In terms of national ranking by total enrollment (including part-time students), the largest institution (including component units) is the State University of New York (382,797) followed by the California State University and College System, whose nineteen campuses accommodate 313,755 students. For the western states, the national ranking is: The CSUCS, (2), the Oregon State System (12), The University of Washington (21), the University of Colorado (26) and Arizona State University (33). Parker finds that Freshman enrollments in 1,045 comparable institutions are highest in Public Universities of Complex Organization," "Multi-purpose Colleges and Universities," and "Unitary State College and University Systems" in that order, for a 1973-1974 total including the other six institutional classifications of 966,744.

In spite of the overall increase in percentage of enrollment over the previous year, the Freshman enrollment shows a decline of 1.7%. Parker suggests a number of reasons for this, including the increased enrollments in community colleges, direct post-secondary job entry, proprietary school enrollments, travel, military service, and unemployment. Full time students for the 1,045 institutions is up by 2.1% in the unitary state systems classification. The Pacific Region (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon and Washington) ranked second among the ten geographical areas used in the study in terms of percentage of increases (1.5%), behind the New England Region (2.3%). This represents the trend in population pressure and mobility, area development, available educational opportunity and resultant student migration. The Parker study indicates that nationally, the western states (even exclusive of Alaska and Hawaii) are high in the ranking by all the parameters, with the California State University and College System second nationally to the State University of New York.

A similar study by Alexander Astin[6] at UCLA for the American Council on Education released early in February 1974, found that the number of American college freshmen from homes where parents were earning $20,000 or more is increasing--7% above 1972 and 15% above 1966 levels. The Astin survey also showed entering freshmen to be more conservative in their political and social attitudes and more job-oriented, bearing out Parker's findings of drastically reduced numbers of students electing liberal arts studies.

The significance of these surveys for educational institutions in west is that we may expect a continuing increase in enrollment numbers and percentages, and that entering freshmen appear to be more serious, job and profession-oriented, more affluent and more ambitious. Schools of journalism and business, it follows, will continue to enjoy proportionately high percentages of increase (although not at the rates predicted in 1971), and that courses, emphases, sequences and major programs of advertising and directly related fields will share in this growth.

Meaningful statistics regarding the proliferation of advertising courses and programs in the west are hard to come by, for the very reasons cited by Professor Hill nearly a decade ago. Advertising education has grown helter-skelter and flowers in a variety of educational gardens, called by a garden variety of names. The most recent attempt to quantify and describe the teaching of advertising in the west was done by J. Reid Roller[7] of the University of Washington and presented to the Western Regional Convention of the American Association of Advertising Agencies in October, 1973. Professor Roller sent questionnaires to 67 Advertising educators who were listed on the A.A.A.A. Western Educator List. This included names representing 38 schools or departments of Business, 21 of Journalism or Communications, and 8 of unspecified departmental affiliation. There were 46 respondents, a return of 68.7%. Thirteen of the 46 schools reporting offered majors, sequences or emphases in advertising. Twelve of these schools reported the number of credit hours required in advertising for majors. Using the semester system as a basis, required credit hours in advertising ranged from 5 to 27, with a median of 14.5 and a mean of 14.3. Roller emphasized the lack of uniformity among schools offering majors or emphases in advertising in the western states, but found that there was a very strong current of feeling among his respondents that uniformity was a worthwhile goal, and that a closer relationship with the professional advertising community was desirable. Another of Roller's findings was that there was a definite improvement in job availabilities in the last two years, especially in California, Oregon and Washington. Respondents indicated that of the advertising graduates whose whereabouts were known, 84.2% had found jobs in advertising related fields.

These figures and findings indicate an awareness on the part of the western advertising educator and practitioner for more and better information about what the schools are doing and how. More inclusive and accurate information is clearly needed, and the machinery and procedures for gathering and interpreting it must be created. The difficulty of the task is illustrated by the nineteen campus California State University and College System. Each of the individual campuses evolved autonomously and each has a different focus in its curricular development. Major class codes, by which particular areas of major study may be identified have been established, but those institutions which offer advertising identify it under a variety of class codes, including "Advertising," "Business Administration," "Marketing," "Journalism," "Communications," "Mass Communications," and "Mass Media." An effort is underway to streamline the coding system so that advertising courses and sequences may be accurately identified.

If the proliferation of advertising courses and programs at the college and university levels suggest an increasing interest in this larger Advertising, consider the activity measureable at the community college and secondary level.

Because of the Master Plan and Inventory of Programs required by California Administrative Code, Title 5, it is possible to isolate courses which deal with advertising under only two class codes, "Business Management," and "Communications." Eleven community colleges offer courses in "Advertising Services" under the "Business Management" class code, and five courses in advertising under the "Communications" code. This means that sixteen community colleges offer courses of advertising content exclusively, while 44 other schools in the system offer courses under the marketing and purchasing class code. For advertising exclusively, this represents an increase of offerings of nearly ten percent in less than three years, with four institutions planning additions in 1974. The complications of overlapping course content for introductory courses at community college or senior schools just in the CSUC system are explored at some length in Eric Stein's[8] presentation to the 1973 American Academy of Advertising convention. His paper, "The First Advertising Course-Where Should It Be Taught: A Problem of Articulation," was based upon his own experience in Illinois, where a total of sixty community colleges have now been established. Considering that California alone in the West has 96, the problem of where the first advertising course should be taught becomes understandably urgent if we are to avoid redundancy, and the problem of transferability of community college credits. A system of transferability similar to that common in journalism curricula in California for one, seems inevitable.

Now, add to the above the 356 high school districts in California which report to the State Department of Education, Division of Secondary Education, Office of Curricular Affairs, the philosophy, goals and objectives for every course taught at the secondary level in California. This reporting is a result of the "Stull Bill, AB 29371, AB 7, 1972," concerning employee evaluation. A coding system similar to that of the CSUC system and Community College system identifies course offerings under a variety of headings. Exact numbers of courses which relate directly to advertising are not available at this writing. It can be assumed, based upon an informal telephone survey of districts in Southern California in January of 1974, that there may be as many as 70 courses in some aspect of advertising taught in the state's high schools. One high school alone, La Serna High, in the Whittier Unified School District in Los Angeles has offered 18 sections of Advertising in the last three quarters of instruction, reaching 576 students. Bruce Reeves[9] reports excellent response to a highly innovative course of Arcalanes High School in Lafayette, California. The course, "Mass Media and Propaganda" contains a unit on advertising analysis.

The course, as is the case with most at the secondary level, is elective, and taught in the Department of English. The evidence presented here of the increasing numbers of courses in advertising at all levels of education does not represent the activity in private and parochial schools in the west. There is even some indication that elementary school children are showing greater interest in guest speakers for presentations of advertising content, particularly television advertising, and that elementary teachers find themselves drawn into discussions of advertising more and more. This last is offered tongue-in-cheek and without widely based substantiation, but the trend cannot be dismissed.

Parallelling the growth of both programs and courses in advertising in the west is the increasing desire on the part of advertising educators for closer ties to the professional advertising community and for more direct involvement in the advertising process by both students and educators. To this need, the American Association of Advertising Agencies has responded with a program under the control of its Educational Foundation which provides many opportunities for student/educator-professional interaction. These activities range from agency-college "adoption" programs to summer internships for students in member agencies.

On the other sides of the advertising pyramid, support appears to be increasing for advertising programs from networks and stations and from some of the larger publications. A significant trend is the emphasis being placed on the support of advertising education by a variety of associations representing various media or advertising related activities. Examples of this speaker's bureau of the Specialty Advertising Association International, the Educational Committee of the Outdoor Advertising Association of America. The American Advertising Federation absorbed Alpha Delta Sigma, National Professional Advertising Fraternity at its national convention in 1972, and very fruitful and productive joint non-curricular activities have begun between the local, county and regional advertising federations and various campus advertising chapter members. Newer colleges and universities, private and public, have given advertising parity with programs such as journalism, public relations, business communications and the like, and have in many cases provided a third alternative to the journalism/business "either-or" by creating or evolving departments of Communication in which advertising, in its larger sense has room to breathe and grow.

In summary, trends indicate a generally healthy picture for the advertising industry in spite of economic and social uncertainties, with some basic structural changes in the role of the full-service agency. This optimistic view holds for the four sides of the advertising pyramid, agency, advertiser, media and service components, and at most levels of its vertical structure.

For education nationally, the trend is up, with small by steady increases in university enrollments and strong increases at the community college level, particularly in the western states. The national picture for the decade ending in 1980 is neatly summarized by Dr. Sidney Tickton, Director of the U.S. Office of Education, National Science Foundation, President's Commission of School Finance, Board of Regents for both Kansas and Ohio and consultant to the U.S. Chamber of Commerce and the U.S. Treasury. As Tickton sees it, there will be for the remainder of the 70's:

Expanding economy accompanied by inflation
Decreasing birthrate
Fewer jobs for the unskilled
Continued interest in higher education
Greater desire by the disadvantaged in higher education
Greater demand for part time enrollment
Greater demand for technical training
Expanding ideas of the "right to go to college"
Peak enrollment of 11.5 million in 1980 (all post-secondary)
Greater numbers of students in community colleges
Reduced enrollments in private liberal arts colleges
More students involved with off-campus learning opportunities

Other trends seen by Tickton are:

1. Conversion of small private colleges into state systems
2. Changes in the mission and character of private liberal arts colleges
3. Conversion of junior colleges to four-year colleges
4. More lenient admissions requirements to attract more students
5. Greater interest by colleges in the needs of students
6. Increase in competition for students through student aid
7. More emphasis upon ability to earn a living after college
8. Expanded use of campuses at night and on weekends.

In spite of the hazards of prognosticating in these times, Dr. Tickton's credentials make his projections as knowledgeable as any.

For advertising education in western states we can summarize a few significant trends:

1. Growing numbers of courses in advertising at all levels of post-secondary education, particularly in community colleges.
2. Growing numbers of elective courses in advertising at secondary schools with relatively large enrollments. Usually offered through departments of English.
3. Increasing enrollment[illegible] in sequences, emphases or majors of advertising.
4. Consolidation of advertising courses in unitary state systems under departmental umbrellas of journalism, business, mass media or communications.
5. Growth and enrichment of established departments of advertising.
6. Emergence of stronger sense of professionalism among professors of advertising as evidenced by the astonishing growth of the activities and influence of the American Academy of Advertising.
7. Closer ties with the Advertising community due largely to the work of the AAA/AAAA Joint committee on Education, and the AAF/ADS educational committees.
8. Continuing high placement percentages for advertising graduates.

Along with these encouraging trends go some attendant problems. The proliferation of courses taught at the secondary level can be seen as an indication of the interest and demand for such courses, but for what reasons? Young people are traditionally, (often justifiably) suspicious of advertising. With a few exceptions, information on course content and outcomes in terms of student attitudes does not exist on any kind of systematic basis. We need to know a lot more about what's happening in western high schools, and this suggests some continuing research. Background and qualifications of teachers of advertising at high schools is another important area where there is a vacuum of information.

In the burgeoning of advertising course offerings at community colleges, there appears to be a lack of uniformity in course objectives, goals, course content and outcomes for introductory or specialized areas of advertising that makes transfer admissability a nightmare to contemplate. A dialogue needs to be opened between departments offering these courses at the community college and the four-year schools offering advertising emphases, sequences of major degrees. This need not lead to dull conformity--innovation is an organic necessity in teaching advertising--but there needs to be, it seems, certain basic levels of skill and knowledge in specific areas that should be common to all programs.

This shared-knowledge, shared-goals aim should be extended to the colleges and universities with advertising programs, particularly the unitary state systems or multi-campus institutions to insure graduates with more approximately equal levels of skill and knowledge.

Advertising's role as both a socioeconomic and functional institution in America culture is changing. It is becoming more responsible, self-regulated, accountable. It is more and more important in the arena of social change, public information and ideology. Perhaps we are evolving a profession which will be one day known as the "Persuasive and Informational Arts," or something equally esoteric.

It is against this background that the evolution of the Advertising Emphasis in the Communications Department at California State University at Fullerton can be reviewed. Founding chairman J. William Maxwell was one of two faculty members when the department opened its classroom doors in 1960. With fifteen full-time and seven part-time faculty, and with well over 600 majors, the department is today the fastest growing department of its kind in California, and the university remains the fastest growing campus in the California State University and College System. The department is patterned after "third alternative" programs on leading mid-western campuses. In addition to core requirements for all majors, the student may elect a specialized emphasis in advertising, technical communications, news (journalism) photo-communications, telecommunications and film, and public relations.

The advertising emphasis was the last of the six to be offered, with the first class in advertising production being offered in 1965. Until a full-time faculty member could be recruited, classes were taught largely by part-time instructors. As an emphasis having full parity with journalism and freedom from traditional business school associations, a great deal of flexibility was possible in establishing overall philosophy and goals, the creation of courses and the design of content. A course in broadcast advertising was added in 1970, and a survey course in 1973. A student must complete 15 units of communications department core and 21 units in the emphasis. Emphasis courses are: Introduction to Advertising, Advertising Production, Advertising Copy and Layout, Retail Advertising, National Advertising Campaigns, Broadcast Advertising, Communications Writing and the practicum in the field, Mass Media Internship. Twelve collateral credits at the upper division and outside the department are required.

This structure represented a solid base upon which to build. It represented general course areas common to many other advertising programs, yet left content and technique open to a variety of innovations. The question then became how best to design or re-design this program to respond to the friendly critics in the professional world who find advertising graduates overeducated and underprepared?

In 1973, an informal research program got underway to review what appeared in the literature regarding advertising education. This included both writings by academicians and of advertising professionals. In addition, a systematic analysis of the proceedings of various higher education conferences and conventions was undertaken either by personal attendance or by a review of the published proceedings. It soon became evident that the ideal advertising program could not be limited to a curricular structure. The very nature of the field required a much broader base than what might be experienced in the classroom no matter how innovative the course presentation. It became obvious that the student must live as close to the everyday realities of the advertising world as possible.

Based upon that principle, a model program was designed that appeared to be workable not only in the revision and enrichment of the emphasis at Cal State Fullerton, but by any institution wanting to begin an advertising program, or to enrich an existing one. The model has five basic components, each of which is designed to interact with the other. The components are: Recruitment, Curriculum, Co-curricular, Placement and Research. These might appear to be excercises in the obvious. In fact, they are nothing more than tightly organized arrangements of activities that have been going on since the inception of the emphasis. The importance and the value of the model lies in the close interaction of the components, and the fact of the geographical proximity to the resources and activities of the Orange County and Los Angeles advertising community. Additionally, the components were designed to interact with innovative activities in other departments. This breaking down of tradition disciplinary insularity not only widened the experience of students of all concerned departments, but could be accomplished without the surrender of departmental autonomies.

I. Recruiting. A fair question here might be "why recruit?" Is it unrealistic to encourage enrollment in an undergraduate program whose graduates may well find it difficult to find work even in the peripheral activities of advertising? It is often heard that those students who want to enter advertising badly enough will find a way in, regardless of their academic backgrounds. An advertising emphasis if there is to be one at all should be small. The response to that reasoning is that advertising is being taught at a number of institutions in Southern California, but none of them has a fully articulated emphasis in advertising that can take advantage of the resources of the area. The intent in an intensive recruiting activity is not to enlarge the emphasis to any substantial degree beyond its current enrollment of 60, but to attract the more highly motivated student to the program at Cal State Fullerton. A more highly motivated freshman or junior college transfer student is a more highly motivated university student and better prepared, more productive graduate and job-seeker. In February, 1974, a recruiting slide presentation was produced by the Instructional Media Center at Fullerton. The spokesman is an advertising student telling his own story. The presentation will be shown to intensely selective groups. (High school and junior college classes in advertising, marketing, illustration, graphic design, business management, etc.) These showings are a continuing activity of the CSUF AAF/ADS Advertising Club. Announcements to these classes of freshman and community college transfer students regarding the scholarships available through the programs are made during these presentations. It has been found that students relate better to CSUF student club members than to faculty or administrative personnel.

II. Curriculum. The curricular structure has been described earlier. The model calls for a continuing enrichment of the survey course content through the use of speakers, films, video-tapes, and examples. With the exception of the internship and the survey course, all of the courses are practical, project oriented activity courses in which professional guests participate in the presentation and critique of materials produced.

III. Co-curricular. This is perhaps the most active and rewarding component of the model. It is based upon the activities of the AAF/ADS campus chapter, "The Ad Club." Activity of the club has become so popular that many members are not advertising students, but come from such diverse areas as marketing and art. Over half of the club membership cannot attend weekly club meetings because of schedule conflicts, but they pay dues and carry the chapter duties. Business meetings alternate with speaker or event meetings. The club functions as an advertising agency, performing parallel functions with an outside advertising agency on a learning basis, and soliciting local retail accounts. It is "full-service" in the sense that the club prepares a marketing analysis for the client, sets goals, objectives, budget, creative strategy, media analysis, creative work through to finished art or commercials. Media time-buying remains the responsibility of the client. Public service advertising is prepared at no cost. Guidance and creative supervision is supplied by the faculty and by professionals with agencies in the Orange County, Los Angeles area. Fund raising projects are undertaken on a periodic basis. Workshops open to all interested students expose them to professional seminars.

Beyond club activities, the newly instituted "Top-Ten" list is causing a strong surge of interest. Each spring, ten students are selected for the list. Criteria for judgment is scholarship overall, GPA in the major, contributions to the club, department, university, community and critical evaluation of a portfolio of ads, storyboards, copy, papers, and published materials compiled by the student during his career at the university. Judging is done by a committee of faculty members and advertising professionals. At the Spring Banquet, the "Top Ten" list is announced. The highest ranking student is awarded the "Advertising Student of the Year" award. Ranking of the remaining nine students is not announced. A picture, and a short subjective biographical sketch are printed on a single "flyer" and mailed, together with a cover letter signed by the department chair and the president of the university to a mailing list representing 200 potential advertising and ad related employers in the "pyramid" described earlier. An "Ad Club Student of the Year" is selected by the members of the club to reward a student who may have made substantial contributions to the club but for some reason does not otherwise qualify for the "Top-Ten" list. In March 1974, the Advertising Curriculum Advisory Board was formed. This board, consisting of members representing the Media-Agency-Advertiser-Support sides of the pyramid, will periodically review the curriculum of the emphasis and make recommendations for its revision and improvement. This board also participates in the "Top-Ten" selection, supplies speakers, guest lecturers and materials for classroom use.

IV. Placement. Obviously, the "Top-Ten" mailing outlined above is the chief placement activity. It has the additional value of motivating students to perform in an outstanding way. It produces interviews, and it attracts attention to the quality of our "product" in the emphasis; a well-prepared graduate. Naturally, not all of our graduates are going to be outstanding, but there is room for them at some level of the pyramid. The main effort here is find a level of efficient function for every graduate, and to assist each student in the plan to follow which will be most efficient in seeking an entry-level job in the field.

V. Research. As was suggested earlier, there is a great deal to know about how advertising is being taught in the high schools and community colleges in the west. It may well be that research already underway may provide a basis for a more uniform presentation of basic advertising. There are early indications that a full instructional unit on consumerism and government regulation may be desireable at a number of levels. Beyond this, two research activities are underway; research that will provide a foundation for keeping the academic activity consistent with the realities of the professional world, and research designed to respond to the advertising community's changing needs. This last can be done through grants, commissioned work, or research funded by the academic institution and undertaken on an interdisciplinary basis.

Although much of the activity discussed here has been attempted with varying degrees of success at other institutions, it is the proximity to the people and resources of the advertising community of Orange and Los Angeles Counties that give the evolving emphasis at California State University at Fullerton its unique potential. It is the intent of the department to make the advertising emphasis competitive with the better institutions around the nation whose programs enjoy widespread recognition.

Much of what has evolved at Fullerton is in direct response to the suggestions of Herbert Zeltner at the American Academy of Advertising Conference last year. Mr. Zeltner made the point that a great deal has been accomplished in bringing academia and the professional world closer. The Educational Foundation of the A.A.A.A. has been working at establishing some of these objectives at the national level. The evolution of the emphasis at Fullerton proves that his suggestions are realistic and workable.

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SOME OBSERVATIONS ON CLOSING THE COMMUNICATIONS GAP BETWEEN TEACHERS AND PRACTITIONERS

by
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When I returned to the University to lecture ... and to listen to students ... after thirty-plus active years in business and corporate life, I made several surprising discoveries.

The first almost overwhelmed me. In the offices of my new colleagues were row after row of textbooks and journals ... on marketing, advertising, promotion. All obviously filled with information, theories, data, etc., which I suddenly realized I would need to know all about in the classroom tomorrow! And little of which I probably knew today.

A new colleague would casually say, "of course you're familiar with Jone's theory of abstraction with regard to comprehension?" I would look at him abstractly with no comprehension, hoping such an expression indicated understanding. What I was really registering was near panic. Not only didn't I not know that theory ... but, looking around, I hadn't even heard of a lot of those textbooks and journals.

But, I dove into the material ... and damn near drowned.

That was my second discovery. If the first discovery could be abbreviated in two words ... like TOO MUCH ... the second might also be described in the two words: UNNECESSARILY DIFFICULT. At least to a businessman. As I swam desperately in this swollen stream of published material ... with considerable relish at first but with increasing concern ... I had trouble keeping my head above water. "Gad, this is tough reading. This is hard to understand," I muttered to myself. "You better read that again, Mel. If you don't get it, they'll take away your professor's badge."

So I read it again. And then, like Koehler's primates, I would suddenly get it. Insight? Trial-and-error? Anyway, "Voila! That's what the writer meant!"

And then in the midst of elation at having figured it out, I thought, "why-in-hell didn't he write it simply ... like he'd tell it in conversation? This is written in academese that's foreign to good business communications. Business people won't get it. They haven't got time to do the translating."

Much of what I was reading was almost another language. Academese, I was told. Once I translated it, I found much of it very helpful, clear, and exciting. And a great deal of what I was now reading, I realized, I had actually been applying in business and management over the years.

And so I eventually began swimming in this pool of important information with greater ease ... getting used to acadamese. But for a while it was tough.

There is, indeed, a "language barrier," a very real communications gap, between business language and academic language.

And this, it seems to me, is sad. Sad, because as long as journals and texts are written in such language, business and industry management will miss much of it. Result: both business and the universities lose.

A few words about my third discovery. Well, I'll put it in one word: RELEVANCY. We're all familiar with the publish-or-perish policy so prevalent today. I have no solution for that. But the result is a flood of published material, much of which is of doubtful relevancy in the marketplace. Finding the relevant, for me at least, has been somewhat like panning for gold. You have to pan an awful lot to get very much gold out of them thar publications. The silt left behind is substantial, much of it redundant material. And the *time* it takes to reach pay dirt ... OH! my aching eyes!

May I be irreverent and suggest there's too much irrelevant writing and publishing? As Conrad Hill sagely observed recently in our news letter ... "to what extent are new journals a response to faculty hunger to get stuff in print? Or does the impetus stem from a need to print important and useful data? To what extent is all this research viable, insightful research? How much is regurgitated research?"

Enough said ... and well said, Conrad.

Well ... TOO MUCH to digest ... UNNECESSARILY DIFFICULT to read and translate ... often redundant if not IRRELEVANT. It seemed that way during my initiation back into the University. What about now? Now that I've become a member of the Club?

Well, let me put it this way. If our purpose as researchers, writers, and teachers is to *help* educate students *and* industry and business in the most effective and efficient manner regarding the communications process ... then we ought to take a good look at our language used ... whether this article, or research we publish, is necessary ... and if so how relevant it is to the marketplace.

Perhaps, under the present rules of academia which place a premium on the printed word in a form that impresses colleagues, maybe this is asking too much.

But at least we can ask it of you ... and hope for some converts. And by *we* I mean we in business, those of us who have been on both sides, and those students who really look to us for better education at lower cost ... and the cost in this case is the time required to "get the message."

May I close these observations, then, with just 2 suggestions to help shorten the communications gap between teachers and practitioners.

1. Since we must do research ... and most of us like to do research ... consider delving more into the less known, and *less* in the let's-see-if-we-find-out-what-he-found-out-by-replication kind of investigation.

More research that's relevant, example: There's so much in the field of communications yet unexplored. Exciting to explore. Credibility, for example ... not just the Nixonian type, but the advertising type. I've been working in this credibility field and you'd be surprised how lonely it is. Should I say it's incredible?

2. For me, and those little ol' and tired business and industrial executives, and also those eager and critical students ... do us this favor. When you write up your research, write it like you talk. Not long, involved sentences; but short ones. Not colleague-impressing four syllable words, but short ones. Tell it like it is ... in everyman's language.

You and I can do it if we want to ... and make a lot of business and industrial executives sit up and take notice. Which presently they don't.

If I sound too critical ... I don't mean to be so. But having, in a sense, worked both sides of the street ... and knowing how much you and I and the University have to contribute from our side, but how little gets recognized or used on the other side ... I pass these suggestions on, hoping they are constructive.

To end all this on a lighter vein, when I'm inclined to pontificat ... now there's an academon ... here's a little story that helps me cut my words down to everyman size.

Some years ago, a plumber made a discovery. He found that in cleaning out clogged drains, hydrochloric acid did a mighty good job. He wrote the good news to the National Bureau of Standards in Washington, told them what he had discovered.

The Bureau wrote back: "The efficacy of hydrochloric acid is indisputable, but the corrosive residue is incompatible with metallic permanence."

The plumber wrote the Bureau his thanks. He was glad they agreed with him. He immediately received this reply.

"We cannot assume responsibility for the production of toxic and noxic residue with hydrochloric acid and we suggest you use an alternate procedure."

The plumber was happy to receive this, the second compliment, as he put it. Since the Bureau again agreed with his idea, he wrote them his thanks again.

The next letter he received from the Bureau really communicated. It was as follows:

"Don't use hydrochloric acid, it eats Hell out of the pipes."

END OF SESSION I

SESSION II: PERSPECTIVES ON RESEARCH - DESCRIPTIVE

UNANTICIPATED EFFECTS OF PROGRAMMING CONTENT ON ADVERTISING AWARENESS AND GENERAL ATTITUDES TOWARD ADVERTISING

by
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Recent television documentaries and magazine articles, in an attempt to provide information on today's advertising world, have at times portrayed the industry in a somewhat unfavorable light. It is the contention of the authors that this information may, in fact, be producing some unanticipated effects. On the surface, it would appear that unfavorable information might discount the credibility of advertising, thus lowering its effectiveness.

However, learning theory has indicated that strong negative or positive information (as opposed to neutral information) may affect the learning of messages. Britt helped explain advertising's relation to learning by stating:

> Unpleasant things may sometimes be learned as readily as pleasant things, but the most ineffective stimuli are those which arouse little or no emotional feeling. The application is that it is better to have rewarding conditions than unpleasant conditions, but either is preferable to learning under neutral conditions. The annoying radio or TV commercial works, but not as well as a message which gives the audience a promise of rewarding experience. (Steuart H. Britt, "How Advertising Can Use Psychology's Rules of Learning," Printers Ink, Volume 252, September 23, 1955, p. 74.)

Expanding this principle beyond the commercial as a source of favorable or unfavorable stimulus would imply that viewing a program unfavorable to advertising may, in fact, be a type of unpleasant condition that is more conducive to learning the content of specific commercials than might be a more neutral program. That is, the unfavorable nature of program content may well be perceived as an unpleasant stimulus to the viewer. When the viewer observes negative inputs about advertising, he or she might feel somewhat uncomfortable since they may rely on advertisements as sources of information upon which to make purchase judgments. When the program displays advertising as being less than truthful in certain situations, the viewer might feel uncomfortable about the prospects of using advertising as an aid in making purchase judgments. This might force the viewer to take a more scrutinizing look at specific ads in order to evaluate them on a more objective basis.

Rogers' diffusion theory points out that new attitudes are adopted in five stages: 1) awareness, 2) interest, 3) evaluation, 4) trial, and 5) adoption. (Everett M. Rogers, The Diffusion of Innovations, New York: Free Press, 1962.) Congruent with this is the idea that advertising in many cases is intended to cause awareness, the first step in the adoption process. If a negative or unfavorable program about advertising makes an individual more aware of its scheduled commercials, it may be a significant factor in causing the person to be more aware of advertising, possibly making him more susceptible to it. Furthermore, negative or unfavorable advertising information might possibly have a carryover affect (outside the immediate advertising or commercial content) that increases the awareness of other advertisements.

Hypotheses

Based upon the previous assumptions, the authors hypothesize:

1. Individuals viewing a documentary portraying advertising in a somewhat unfavorable or negative manner will have a lower attitude of advertising than individuals viewing a program considered to be neutral in content.
2. Individuals viewing a documentary portraying advertising in a somewhat unfavorable or negative manner will have a greater awareness of the viewed commercials than individuals viewing the same commercials in a more neutral setting.

Methodology

Five matched samples were used which included 123 basic marketing students. Two television documentaries were procured. One of the television documentaries concerned itself with advertising. It is the contention of the authors that the documentary showed the industry in an unfavorable light. The second documentary was considered to be neutral in regard to advertising in that advertising was in no way related to the subject matter of the program.

Each documentary was shown with and without commercial messages. Since the original advertising documentary did not have commercials, the commercials from the neutral documentary were edited in. This created four different documentaries.

A. Neutral Programming With Commercials
B. Unfavorable Programming With Commercials
C. Unfavorable Programming Without Commercials
D. Neutral Programming Without Commercials

Four of the samples were each shown one of the documentaries and given a two-part questionnaire to determine their attitudes toward advertising in general and their awareness of the specific advertisements. Although Groups C and D received no commercial messages, it was felt that their responses to the awareness questions would help determine the amount of product knowledge obtained prior to the testing situation.

The fifth group (E) was not shown any programming but received the questionnaire. This would allow the authors to determine if viewing a documentary, regardless of its information, has any effect on advertising attitudes and awareness, as well as determining the amount of product knowledge prior to the testing situation.

The order of the awareness and attitude question sections was rotated between the sample groups to avoid any order bias. Also, the order of the specific attitude and awareness (recall) questions was randomly determined.

According to the hypotheses, Groups B and C should have lower attitudes toward advertising than Groups A and D. Furthermore, Group B will have higher awareness of the commercials than Group A.

Awareness Questions

The commercials viewed in Groups A and B were for nine different products and services, which included:

insurance agents
arthritis formula
headache formula
denture cleanser
air conditioners
furniture polish
coffee
automobiles
telephone usage

Fourteen multiple-choice questions were used to determine awareness of the product benefits or other information specifically discussed in the commercials. (See Appendix I)

Attitudinal Questions

A five-point Likert scale was used to determine individuals' responses to twenty pre-tested statements dealing with advertising. (Gregory M. Gazda, "A Study of Businessmen, Consumers and Consummerists Attitudes Toward Consumerism," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Arizona State University, 1974.) Individuals were asked to respond to each statement by choosing one of the following alternatives which indicated their feelings toward the question: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree. (See Appendix II) Since some of the statements were positive and others were negative in regard to advertising, the poles of the positive questions were reversed so that a summarized scale could be constructed in which the higher the total score (on the twenty statements), the more favorable would be the individuals' overall attitudes toward advertising.

Results

To test the aforementioned hypotheses, an analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether or not treatment differences did occur both for the recall and attitude scores. The data, as displayed in Table I reflects that significant F-ratios did occur; therefore, the hypotheses of no treatment differences for attitude and recall scores were rejected. The F-ratio representing the attitude toward advertising scores proved to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance for 4 and 118 degrees of freedom. The recall of advertising content scores produced an F-ratio which was significant well beyond the .01 level of significance.

TABLE I

Analysis of Variance of Attitude and Recall Scores for the Treatment Groups

	DF	SS	MS	F
Attitudes	G = 4	712.535	178.134	3.007^A
Toward	W = 118	6990.227	59.239	
Advertising	T = 122	7702.762		
Recall of	G = 4	578.854	144.713	37.896^B
Advertising	W = 118	450.610	3.819	
Content	T = 122	1029.463		

A = $p<.05$
B = $p<.01$

The analysis of variance computation merely acknowledges whether or not treatment differences do occur. Critical to the thrust of this research is the determination of differential recall and attitude scores between particular treatment groups. The Scheffé test was utilized to determine whether significant differences did occur between treatment groups taken two at a time. The results of the Scheffé test appear in Table II.

TABLE II

The Scheffé Test for Differences in Attitude and Recall Scores Between Treatment Groups

	Group	A	B	C	D	E
Attitudes	A	0.0	2.318	1.355	0.726	-1.271
Toward	B	-2.318	0.0	-0.978	-1.715	-3.198^A
Advertising	C	-1.335	0.978	0.0	-0.688	-2.364
	D	-0.726	1.715	0.688	0.0	-1.906
	E	1.271	3.198^A	2.364	1.906	0.0

A = $p < .05$

	Group	A	B	C	D	E
Recall of	A	0.0	0.591	8.732^B	8.612^B	8.088^B
Advertising	B	-0.591	0.0	7.357^B	7.065^B	6.926^B
Content	C	-8.732^B	-7.357^B	0.0	-0.911	0.110
	D	-8.612^B	-7.065^B	0.911	0.0	0.947
	E	-8.088^B	-6.926^B	-0.110	-0.947	0.0

B = $p < .01$

The attitudinal scores in reference to advertising showed that a statistically significant difference occurred between Groups B and E. That is, attitudes toward advertising were found to be significantly more positive for Group E (the pure control group) as compared to Group B (who saw the advertising documentary with commercials). Significant differences between Groups A (communism documentary with ads) and B (advertising documentary with ads) did not occur, although the data were strongly in the predicted direction. That is, Group B had a more negative overall view of advertising than did Group A. Where significant differences in attitudes did occur, the difference is attributed to the nature of program contents (or lack thereof in Group E) directed toward the treatment groups.

There were statistically significant differences in groups' ability to correctly recall the content of advertising messages. The significant differences that occurred between Groups A, C; A, D; A, E; B, C; B, D; and B, E are attributed to the fact that Groups A and B were exposed to the specific ads within programs, while Groups C and D were only exposed to the programs, and Group E was exposed to neither program nor ads. It was predicted that individuals' ability to recall advertising content may be affected by the nature of the program that the ads were inserted into. A statistically significant difference in recall scores between Groups A and B, groups with similar ads and different program contents, did not occur. Group B, however, was able to recall ad content more correctly than Group A. This phenomenon may have occurred because the critical nature of the program content in the advertising documentary might have made individuals more aware of the specific advertising messages being relayed to them.

The five groups' mean responses to the attitudinal questions appear in Table III. The range of possible scores have the potential of varying from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree), with 3 being a neutral response. Although it appears that many of the mean responses are quite similar, the individuals that viewed the advertising documentary perceived advertising to be much less truthful, believable, and reliable than those in other treatment groups.

Limitations

It is possible that the study lacks external validity in view of the student sample. In the future a more realistic sample is suggested using a population cross-section.

Some problems were encountered in the use of video-tape systems over closed circuit television. With the transfer from network programming to video-tape, there is some loss of quality. All commercials were viewed in black and white due to a lack of color video-tape equipment.

Implications

Although the critical hypotheses were not statistically significant, the data reflected predicted directions. The results clearly showed that there was greater awareness (recall) of advertising content for the group who viewed the ads within the context of the advertising documentary as compared to the group who viewed the ads within the context of the neutral program. Also as

TABLE III

Mean Likert Scale Responses to the Advertising Statements By All Treatment Groups

Statement	A n=30	B n=20	C n=23	D n=33	E n=17
Most advertising today is worthless.	3.87	3.45	3.83	3.91	3.76
Advertisements are typically truthful and accurate.	3.20	3.95	3.74	3.42	2.71
Advertisements usually present a true picture of products advertised.	3.07	3.95	3.91	3.55	3.12
Advertised products are usually more reliable than unadvertised products.	3.43	3.10	3.17	3.09	2.76
Companies should prove in advance any claims which they plan to use in their advertisements.	1.50	1.25	1.65	1.64	1.71
Advertising is good for our economy.	2.10	1.85	2.17	2.06	1.53
Most advertising is believable.	2.87	3.25	3.13	3.00	2.71
I favor eliminating all forms of advertising.	4.37	4.50	4.09	4.21	4.35
If a company uses false advertising, it should be forced to correct such statements in future advertising.	1.17	1.35	1.74	1.48	1.47
Advertising usually helps lower the cost of products to consumers.	3.97	3.80	4.26	3.76	3.82
Advertising tries to persuade consumers to buy products they do not really need.	2.47	2.10	2.30	2.36	2.35
A consumer should not believe most advertisements.	2.97	2.60	3.04	2.85	3.41
Advertisements emphasize important differences between products.	2.77	3.60	3.48	3.00	3.18
The only difference between some products is the way they are advertised.	2.20	1.60	1.57	1.91	1.88
Advertisements are reliable sources of information about the performance of products.	3.10	4.00	3.48	3.27	2.94

(more)

TABLE III (continued)

I enjoy watching, hearing, and reading most advertisements.	3.13	2.90	3.09	3.41	3.18
There should be stiffer penalties for false advertising.	1.63	1.85	1.78	1.61	1.71
Advertising too often stresses the image of a product rather than supplying useful facts about it.	1.80	1.60	1.91	1.85	2.12
Advertising tries to brainwash children.	2.45	1.95	2.35	2.09	2.65
Advertisements are of little use in deciding what product to buy.	3.56	3.45	3.91	3.75	3.88

predicated, overall attitudes toward advertising were less favorable for the persons viewing the advertising documentary as compared to persons in the other treatment groups. Thus, the unfavorable advertising program may have, in fact, led to greater learning of commercial messages that appeared within the specific program.

Although the study made no attempt to measure this, it may be possible to extend these findings beyond the immediate commercials viewed within the specific program. Through additional research, investigators might attempt to explain the effect of programs unfavorable to advertising on the awareness of commercial messages viewed at a later date.

The authors would encourage additional research that might prove or disprove the effect of stimuli unfavorable to advertising on the awareness of specific commercial messages. This study was of a pilot nature, and with further research using population cross-sections, the results might be more generalizable and useful.

APPENDIX I

Questions Testing Awareness (Recall) of Advertising Content

The following set of questions is designed to acknowledge your degree of familiarity with a number of products and services. For each question, please select the one best alternative and code the number of that alternative on the answer sheet provided.

1. Which party determines automobile insurance rates?

    1. Insurance companies
    2. Insurance agents
    3. Federal Government
    4. Automobile drivers
    5. State governments

2. What brand name is associated with "Arthritis Pain Formula?"

   1. Bufferin
   2. Anacin
   3. Excedrin
   4. Bayer
   5. Vanquish

3. Which agency are independent insurance agents affiliated with?

   1. American Association of Insurance Agents
   2. National Academy of Independent Agents
   3. National Association of Independent Agents
   4. National Association of Insurance Agents
   5. American Academy of Independent Agents

4. Polident stresses which of the following product benefits?

   1. Clean smelling breath
   2. Fast cleaning action
   3. Cleaning power
   4. Clean tasting teeth
   5. Economical to use

5. "Arthritis Pain Formula" is a tablet designed to relieve pain generating from arthritis. According to its spokesmen, what other type of pain might this product relieve?

   1. Headache
   2. Bercitis
   3. Rheumatism
   4. Muscle tension
   5. Backache

6. What is the major advantage of owning a Gibson Air-Sweep air conditioner?

   1. Economy
   2. Long lastingness
   3. Quietness
   4. Ease of installation
   5. Good warranty

7. What is the Furniture Doctor's prescription?

   1. Lemon pledge
   2. Scott's liquid gold
   3. Behold
   4. Woodcrafter
   5. Old english lemon

8. The drunk driver accounts for what percentage of all fatal accidents?

   1. 40%
   2. 50%
   3. 30%
   4. 70%
   5. 20%

9. What feature is the producer of Excedrin promoting?

1. Added strength
2. Non-breakable bottle
3. Safety cap
4. Speed of relief
5. Economy sized bottle

10. Polident is available in what forms?

1. Liquid and powder
2. Tablets and paste
3. Liquid and tablets
4. Tablets and powder
5. Paste and powder

11. Why might you want to drink Brim coffee?

1. It tastes better than most other coffees
2. You can drink more without typical coffee side-effects
3. It is more economical than most other coffees
4. You can drink more because it is less filling than most other coffees
5. Because of its deeper, richer flavor

12. In a controlled gas economy run, the Datsun recorded how many miles per gallon?

1. 42
2. 30
3. 38
4. 35
5. 32

13. When face-to-face communication or contact is not possible, you can express your feelings via:

1. Long distance telephone
2. FTD
3. Western Union
4. Hallmark cards
5. Special delivery letter

14. What model Datsun participated in the gas economy run?

1. 1000
2. 600
3. 1800
4. 1200
5. 1300

APPENDIX II

Questions Testing Attitudes Toward Advertising

For each of the following statements, please select the one alternative that best describes your attitudes, and code the number of the alternative on the answer sheet provided.

41. Most advertising today is worthless.

    1. Strongly Agree
    2. Agree
    3. Neutral
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly Disagree

42. Advertisements are typically truthful and accurate.

    1. Strongly Agree
    2. Agree
    3. Neutral
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly Disagree

43. Advertisements usually present a true picture of products advertised.

    1. Strongly Agree
    2. Agree
    3. Neutral
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly Disagree

44. Advertised products are usually more reliable than unadvertised products.

    1. Strongly Agree
    2. Agree
    3. Neutral
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly Disagree

45. Companies should prove in advance any claims which they plan to use in their advertisements.

    1. Strongly Agree
    2. Agree
    3. Neutral
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly Disagree

46. Advertising is good for our economy.

    1. Strongly Agree
    2. Agree
    3. Neutral
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly Disagree

47. Most advertising is believable.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

48. I favor eliminating all forms of advertising.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

49. If a company uses false advertising, it should be forced to correct such statements in future advertising.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

50. Advertising usually helps lower the cost of products to consumers.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

51. Advertising tries to persuade consumers to buy products they do not really need.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

52. A consumer should not believe most advertisements.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

53. Advertisements emphasize important differences between products.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

54. The only difference between some products is the way they are advertised.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

55. Advertisements are reliable sources of information about the performance of products.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

56. I enjoy watching, hearing, and reading most advertisements.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

57. There should be stiffer penalties for false advertising.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

58. Advertising too often stresses the image of a product rather than supplying useful facts about it.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

59. Advertising tries to brainwash children.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

60. Advertisements are of little use in deciding what product to buy.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

ADVERTISING CHANGES AND STOCK PRICE MOVEMENTS

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Introduction

Several major studies have been concerned with the economics of advertising. It is well recognized that there are definite limits to the benefits of advertising: a corporation should continue to increase advertising expenditures to the point where the marginal benefits equal the marginal costs. It has also been shown that there are cumulative benefits of advertising, and also decay factors over time. Most of the work in the area has been in theoretical terms or has examined advertising relative to corporate sales or earnings. The current study attempts to examine the ultimate benefit of advertising to corporate owners in the most direct and relevant manner--in terms of stock price changes. An advertising campaign that entertains but does not generate higher revenues and subsequently higher than normal returns to the owners (stockholders) cannot be considered successful. This paper examines the benefits of advertising by analyzing the differential returns to stockholders of companies that experience substantial increases or decreases in advertising expenditures. The first section contains a discussion of past studies dealing with the effects of advertising. The second section describes the sample of companies and the measures used to determine relative increases or decreases in advertising. The tests of advertising effectiveness are presented in section three. Section four contains research findings. The final section summarizes the results. (The authors acknowledge the extensive assistance of Nile-Erik Aaby and Francois Eppel; also the use of the computer facilities at the University of Wyoming and the S&P Compustat Tapes.)

I. Prior Studies of Advertising Effectiveness

The rich literature on the general subject of advertising effectiveness can be disaggregated into three groups on the basis of research objectives. Those taking the "societal" view have investigated apparent relationships which can be observed at the marco level, e.g., the relationships between advertising and competition, efficiency, pricing structure, and social values. The work of Borden (1942), Quandt (1964), Telser (1960, 1966, 1973), Stigler (1958), Bayer and Greyser (1968), and Backman (1967) is representative of this concern. A second group of research can be distinguished on the basis of a "managerial" concern, i.e., the relationships between advertising and the microeconomic variable such as sales, profits and return on investment which are of keen interest to practicing managers. Here the work of Casey (1962), Green et al. (1966), Kuehn (1964), Palda (1964), Semon (1964), Robinson, et al. (1968) and Simon (1971) is representative. A third group of research might be characterized by its concern for the "communicative" consequences of advertising messages. This group includes not only the well-known syndicated measures of advertising's memorability and attention-capturing value but also the more theoretically-oriented investigations of the relationships between the advertising message and the resultant behavioral outcomes, e.g., attitude change, persuasability, preference, purchase probabilities and the several subprocesses of consumer behavior. In this third group, the work of Britt (1963), Ryan (1964), Levy (1971), Roberto and Pinson (1973) and Sheth (1973) is illustrative.

It is not our intention to imply that an exhaustive review of the advertising effectiveness literature has been presented. The focus of this paper is the relationships which exist between advertising expenditures and stock price movements of companies who have large advertising expenditures. To oversimplify, our concern is "Are companies with heavy advertising good investments?" As such, the view taken here is an "owner" or "investor" perspective rather than "societal," "managerial," or the "behavioral" view.

It is noted that recent contributions to the literature have taken a somewhat similar purpose, and that the managerial/accounting notion of advertising-as-investment has prompted investigations of the rates of return for selected advertising expenditures (Telser, 1973; Peles, 1970, 1971). However, the linkage between a firm's advertising budgets and the market value of common stock ownership has been virtually neglected. The substantive hypothesis here is that common stocks of the heavy advertisers perform differently (either better or worse) than the aggregate stock market.

II. Sample, Data and Data Adjustments

Sample of Companies

The basic universe of companies considered for the study was the "Top National Advertisers" as reported each year since 1964 by Advertising Age. ("Top 125 Companies," 1964-1969; "Top 100 Companies, 1970-1972.") Each year this source publishes the dollar expenditures in major media by the top national advertisers. Total advertising expenditure figures were obtained from this source. The percent changes were examined year by year to determine which companies were on the list for all nine years (1964-1972). This allowed the determination of percent changes for eight years. The planned analysis made the availability of data for the complete time period desirable. In addition to excluding firms not regularly in the "top advertisers" group, some advertisers were eliminated because there was not a public market for their stock (e.g., the U. S. Government was a notable exclusion for this reason). The final sample was 71 companies.

Adjustments in the Data

Two specific problems arose with the data from Advertising Age. First, the outdoor advertising figures for the sample companies were not reported in 1965, but were reported in every other year. One alternative would be to eliminate the outdoor advertising figure from every year and recompute the totals. Other alternatives were to assume an outdoor advertising figure for 1965 equal to 1964 or 1966; estimate a figure for 1965 based upon an extrapolation between 1964 and 1966; or estimate the 1965 figure based upon an aggregate change in outdoor advertising for 1965. It was considered extreme to eliminate data for eight years on the basis of one year's absence so it was decided to attempt to estimate the 1965 figure. Given the three estimation procedures considered, the third alternative was selected since it was considered to be more exact than simple extrapolation procedures or the assumption of no change. The estimation of an aggregate change for outdoor advertising in 1965 was based upon an index figure for outdoor advertising as reported in 1971 Business Statistics. The index figure for 1964 was 89, while the 1965 index figure was 92, indicating a 3.37 percent change. This percent change figure was applied to all firms that reported outdoor advertising expenditures in 1964 and totals were recomputed and new ranks assigned if indicated.

The second problem occurred because newspaper advertising was not included in 1971 and 1972. Again, one alternative was to eliminate newspaper advertising for all previous years and recompute totals. This alternative was rejected for two reasons. The first was that again we would be ignoring data for seven years because of missing data for two years. The other reason was the effect such an elimination would have on almost all companies, and the very significant effect it would have on several individual companies. Specifically, total newspaper advertising constituted 8.4 percent of the total advertising budget in 1970 and 1969, and 9.7 percent of the total in 1968. In certain individual cases the effects would be major. For example, in 1970 newspaper advertising accounted for over 40 percent of total advertising for three companies, and over 25 percent for an additional five companies. The deletion of such proportions could cause significant changes for these companies and their rankings. It was decided to estimate the individual newspaper advertising figures for the two missing years by using the same procedures used for estimating 1965 outdoor advertising. That is, by using the index of aggregate newspaper advertising as reported in the Survey of Current Business (1973). Again, each company's newspaper advertising was estimated and a new total derived and new ranks assigned.

Measuring Changes in Advertising

The objective was to derive an annual distribution of percent changes in advertising and compare these to coincident and lagged percent changes in stock prices. One measure of advertising change is the annual percent changes in the aggregate advertising expenditure. A major problem with such a measure is the influence of mergers or divestitures. Specifically, a merger of a heavy advertising firm with a competitor that also did a lot of advertising would cause a major increase in advertising expenditures. The opposite would be true if a firm sold a division that did a substantial amount of advertising. Two solutions were considered for this problem. The first was to use advertising expenditures per share assuming that most mergers are carried out on the basis of common share exchanges. Therefore, one would assume acquisitions would result in an increase in shares oustanding and following a divestiture a firm would reacquire stock (i.e., reduce shares outstanding).

The second alternative was to use advertising expenditures per dollar of sales. In the case of a merger either the sales and advertising expenditures for the acquired firm would be included for the full year (if accounted for as a pooling of interest), or both would be included from the date of acquisition if accounted for as a purchase. The opposite would be true in the case of a divestiture. An advantage of the second alternative is that it takes account of mergers or divestitures where the merger is carried out for cash or for something other than all common stock (i.e., convertible bonds or convertible preferred stock). Also this procedure would automatically adjust in the case where a company sells a division and receives cash or other compensation but does not reacquire stock. Given this a priori advantage we elected to use advertising expenditures per dollar of sales.

The measure of percent advertising change was derived for each company for each year. The annual percent changes for each company in the sample were ranked and a histogram constructed. The median value, the average percent change, and the overall percent change for the aggregate were also calculated.

III. Tests of Advertising Effectiveness

Two tests of advertising effectiveness were conducted. The first tested returns for the total sample of large advertisers against overall market returns. The second examined investor benefits from investing in six subsamples of large advertisers and is referred to as the high-low portfolio test.

Total Sample Portfolio

This test compared the average stock price performance for the total sample of 71 large advertisers to overall market returns. The basic question is--how would an investor fare who invested in all 71 large advertisers during the period 12/31/64 through 12/31/72? Put another way, do the stocks of consistently large advertisers perform better on average than stock in general. The large advertising portfolio was compared to the Dow Jones Industrial Average (DJIA) which is composed of 30 blue-chip industrial stocks listed on the New York Stock Exchange (NYSE), and to the Standard and Poor's 425 Industrial Index (SP425) which includes 425 of the larger companies listed on the NYSE. While not all of the 71 large advertisers are listed on the NYSE, the great bulk of them are listed.

High-Low Portfolio Test

The purpose of this test is to determine whether substantial changes in our measure of advertising can be used as a decision rule in stock selection. Specifically, there is a comparison between portfolios of stocks from companies that experienced the largest increases in advertising to portfolios of stocks from companies that experienced the largest decreases in advertising expenditures (or the smallest increases). It was hypothesized that the high advertising change portfolio would outperform the low advertising change portfolio, where high and low are defined in terms of percent changes in advertising expenditures per dollar of sales. Because of the controversies regarding the time path of effectiveness of advertising, the portfolios for the two groups were analyzed for the two periods--the year of the advertising change, and the year following the advertising change. The reasoning behind the coincident analysis is based upon the notion of an efficient stock market wherein it is assumed that stock prices adjust rapidly to new information (Fama, 1970). In this analysis advocates of an efficient market would hypothesize that although the effect of advertising (in terms of sales and earnings) may not be felt immediately, investors become aware of the major change in advertising expenditure and adjust stock prices in anticipation of the subsequent effect on the firm. The subsequent year analysis takes account of the possible lag in effect on sales and earnings. This lag can also be justified on the basis that investors may not know of the change in advertising until the following period--i.e., although investors adjust stock prices rapidly to new information, the information on advertising changes is not available during the year of the advertising change.

Six portfolios were examined: the top and bottom five companies; the top and bottom ten companies; and the top and bottom fifteen firms. While the two groups of five should give the most clear-cut results from the standpoint of the hypothesis, the portfolio size is small. The portfolios of 15 may be restrictive in terms of performance but they have the required size. (Several studies have shown that almost all the potential benefits of portfolio diversification are derived with portfolios of between 8-12 securities. See Evans and Archer, 1968; Gaumnitz, 1971; Fisher and Lorie, 1970.) Both average rate of return and the variance of return for each portfolio (a measure of risk) were considered.

IV. Research Findings

Overall Economic Changes

Stock prices are definitely related to the business cycle. Advertising expenditures are also influenced by business conditions. Hence, Table 1 contains the NBER chronology of aggregate business conditions during the period of study. The total period of analysis included only one period of recession (November, 1969-November, 1970) and was largely a period of economic expansion.

Three related annual economic series are included in Table 2--Gross National Product (GNP); Aggregate Sales per share (SP425); and Net Profits per share (SP425). The figures in Table 2 are consistent with Table 1. There were consistent increases in aggregate production (GNP)--even during the 1970 recession. Both Corporate Sales per share and net earnings per share fluctuated cyclically.

Aggregate Advertising Changes

Table 3 contains three measures of advertising change. The first is percent changes in aggregate advertising for the "Top National Advertisers" (adjusted for outdoor advertising and newspaper advertising). The second is the percent change in the index of total advertising (1971 Business Statistics; recent figures from the Survey of Current Business). The third is the percent change in advertising expenditure per dollar of sales for our sample of 71 large advertisers. This third measure is substantially different from the other series since it is not an aggregate series, but a ratio. As such, it is comparable to a ratio of national advertising to GNP, or a ratio of national advertising changes to GNP changes. These ratio results are interesting since they show that while aggregate advertising expenditures have generally increased every year, advertising expenditures relative to net sales have declined every year. Further discussion of this is deferred to a subsequent section. It is possible that this steady decline can be explained in terms of increasing advertising efficiency for this sample of large advertisers.

Distributions of Annual Advertising Changes

The distributions of annual advertising changes for the sample companies are contained in Table 4 and appear relatively normal. The modal interval was 0.00 to -9.99 which is consistent with the average changes that were always negative from -.6 to -7.5 percent. This was also the median interval in every year. Once exception occurred in 1969 when there was a rather high percent (18.3) of large declines (20-30%). This was the year before the 1970 recession and profits declined slightly prior to a large decline in 1960. Firms may have cut back during 1969 in an attempt to forestall the decline.

Stock Price Performance of Total Sample

The annual price changes for the two market indicator series (DJIA and SP425) and for the total sample of 71 companies is contained in Table 3. The large advertisers portfolio (composed of equal dollar amounts of each of the large advertisers) outperformed both of the market indicator series in every year but one. The average performance of the SP425 was better than that of the DJIA but the portfolio of large advertisers had average annual returns twice as large as the SP425 and over four times as large as the DJIA. Using typical measures of risk, the portfolio of large advertisers did not appear to be any riskier than the market portfolios--the advertisers portfolio had fewer and smaller negative returns. It also had about the same variance of annual returns.

High-Low Portfolio Results

This test analyzed stock portfolio performance for companies in the tails of the advertising changes distribution, i.e., those companies with the largest and smallest changes. Table 5 contains the results assuring an investor held the alternative portfolios during the year of the advertising change. Table 6 reports performance assuming the portfolios are held during the year after the advertising changes. Table 7 contains a listing of the number of years that one of the high or low portfolios did better than one of the market portfolios or the portfolio of 71 large advertisers.

Coincident Year Investments

The results for the three top portfolios supported the hypothesis of differential benefits to the stockholders. The three top portfolios did consistently better than either market indicator series in terms of average price change. They had smaller coefficients of variation (CV) and, therefore, were less risky. When the top change portfolios were compared to the portfolio of all large advertisers, they were superior in about half the years, with somewhat higher average returns. In terms of risk, only the top five portfolio had a lower CV.

The surprising result came with the examination of the portfolio results for bottom portfolios--i.e., companies that experienced the largest declines in advertising expenditures per dollar of sales. The results in Tables 5 and 7 indicate that these portfolios outperformed both market indicator series almost every year; that is, they had higher average annual price changes and lower risk. In addition, these portfolios outperformed the portfolio of 71 large advertisers in the majority of individual years and on average (in terms of returns and risk measures). Finally, *these portfolios of large "negative" advertisers did better on average than the portfolios of companies that experienced the largest increases in advertising per dollar of sales.* This superiority was manifested in terms of average price changes *and* risk measures.

Subsequent Year Investments. Because of the assumption of a lag there are only seven portfolio years. Again in terms of year-by-year comparisons and average returns, the top portfolios experienced *superior results* compared to either of the market indicator series. Specifically, the top portfolios were better than the market series during either five or six of the seven years. The average of the annual returns for the top portfolios was 9-11 percent compared to about 2-5 percent for the market. Given the higher returns, it is notable that the risks were quite comparable in terms of the standard deviation of returns and *lower* in terms of the CV.

The top portfolio results compared to the total sample of 71 are best described as a standoff--during about half the years the top advertising portfolios were superior, while the average return for all the large advertisers was superior to the top 10 and 15, but not the top 5.

As before, the bottom advertising change portfolios did much better than one might hypothesize. They did better than the market portfolios in most years and their average returns were superior to both the market returns and to the returns from the top advertising portfolios. While the returns were generally superior, the measures of risk were also greater than the other portfolios apparently because of the very high average returns in 1967.

In general these results were consistent with and confirmed the coincident year results in that both high and low portfolios did substantially better than the aggregate market indicator series in terms of returns *and* risk measures. The subsample results were also generally better than the *total* sample portfolios. Not only were these portfolios better than the market but they were also better than the top advertising portfolios.

Stock Prices and Declining Advertising

There are three possible reasons for the superior stock performance of firms that experience major declines in advertising per dollar of sales. First, one may contend that these firms are the *most efficient* advertisers and they maximize the sales effect from their advertising dollar. Efficiency would allow firms to substantially increase sales and earnings per dollar of advertising. Second, it is possible that the net benefits of *past* advertising expenditures accumulate. As an example, assuming a firm has been a heavy advertiser in the past, once the desired image or demand has been established it is possible to maintain the status or demand with a much smaller budget. The final possibility is that a major cutback in relative advertising expenditures is reflected in a much higher level of earnings for the year of the cutback. These higher earnings are reflected almost immediately in stock price increases. If a firm considers advertising expenditures as discretionary it is possible for a heavy advertiser to cut back advertising for one year, and assuming normal growth, to increase profit margins and net earnings substantially during that year. Some slight support for this notion can be detected from the 1970 results. Recall that 1970 was the only economic recession period considered. During this year companies that increased their relative advertising expenditure probably hurt their already depressed earnings and all top advertising portfolios suffered larger price declines than the aggregate market. In contrast, the stock of companies that experienced reductions in relative advertising consistently enjoyed stock price increases. These alternative hypotheses are deserving of further research.

V. Summary and Conclusion

Summary

Studies on the effectiveness of advertising have neglected the variable of ultimate concern to the owner--his wealth position. Assuming that the corporate manager's ultimate objective is to maximize the wealth of the owners, success should be measured by changes in stock prices relative to an aggregate market portfolio. The objective of the study was to analyze the effect of large advertising budgets and substantial changes in advertising on stock prices

Analysis of 71 large advertisers indicated that while total advertising expenditures generally increased every year, advertising per dollar of sales declined in every year. The two tests of advertising effectiveness were a comparison of stock price changes for the total sample of large advertisers to aggregate stock market changes, and a comparable analysis of subsamples of large advertisers--those that experienced the largest increases in advertising per dollar of sales and those companies that had the largest decreases.

The results for the total sample of large advertising firms definitely supported the hypothesis regarding the benefits of advertising. Specifically, in every year the portfolio of large advertisers had superior returns to both market indicator series with one small exception. The average annual returns for the eight-year period were between two and four times as large as the aggregate market with about equal risk.

The results for the top change portfolios supported the hypothesis in that the results were definitely superior to the overall stock market and slightly better than the total sample portfolio. Surprisingly, the bottom change portfolios did better than any other portfolio, either total sample portfolio, top change portfolios, or total market portfolios.

Conclusion

Heavy advertising expenditures do have a substantial impact on the relative wealth position of owners. Stocks from both tails of the advertising change distribution did better than the market. Assessment of the advertising strategies associated with these extremes of relative advertising is a promising area for further inquiry. We hold that this future work will be facilitated by the use of owner-wealth as a measure of advertising success.

TABLE 1

Specification of Peaks and Troughs in Business Conditions February, 1961-December, 1972

		Length of Period
February, 1961 (Trough) - November, 1969 (Peak)	--	105 months
November, 1969 (Peak) - November, 1970 (Trough)	--	12 months
November, 1970 (Trough) - December, 1972*	--	25 months

*December, 1972 was not a peak but only the end of the test period. As of February, 1974 there was no indication of an end to the current expansion.

Source: *Business Conditions Digest*, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 2

Annual Percent Changes in Selected Economic Series, 1965-1972

Year	Nominal GNP (1)	Sales Per Share SP 425 (2)	Net Earnings Per Share SP 425 (2)
1965	8.3	10.2	13.4
1966	9.5	9.6	6.7
1967	5.9	3.8	- 4.3
1968	8.9	10.5	9.6
1969	7.6	6.9	- 0.5
1970	5.0	- 1.1	-11.7
1971	8.0	10.2	10.4
1972	9.4	14.1	14.9

Source: (1) *Survey of Current Business*
(2) *Standard & Poor's Analysts Handbook*

TABLE 3

Annual Percent Changes in Advertising and Stock Prices 1965-1972

	Advertising Expenditures			Stock Prices		
Year	Top 100	Total Index	Sample of 71 Adv./Sales	DJIA	SP 425	Sample of 71
1965	8.41	7.08	-2.50	10.88	9.88	18.60
1966	10.55	9.56	-2.70	-18.94	-13.60	- 6.80
1967	0.85	-0-	-5.30	15.20	23.53	33.30
1968	5.71	4.03	-2.20	5.24	8.47	15.90
1969	0.93	7.10	-5.80	-15.19	-10.20	0.70
1970	3.85	-2.41	-0.60	4.82	- 0.58	0.40
1971	4.05	-0-	-0.90	6.11	11.71	16.10
1972	4.50	9.87	-7.50	14.58	16.10	17.10
Ave. of Ann. Changes	4.86	4.40	-3.44	2.84	5.66	11.91
Ending Wealth Ratio	---	---	---	117.75	147.33	233.09
Ave. Annual Compound Change	---	---	---	2.10	4.98	11.05
St. Dev. of Annual Price Changes	---	---	---	12.12	12.00	12.10

TABLE 4

Yearly Frequency Distribution of Annual Percent Changes in Advertising Expenditures Per Dollar of Net Sales for 71 Large Advertisers

	Percent of Changes in Intervals							
Year	-30.0 and below	-20.0 to -29.99	-10.0 to -19.99	0.0 to -9.99	0.1 to 9.99	10.0 to 19.99	20.0 to 29.99	30.0 and above
1965	4.2%	4.2%	21.1%	32.4%	26.7%	7.1%	0%	4.2%
1966	2.8%	4.2%	15.5%	40.9%	19.7%	12.7%	2.8%	1.4%
1967	2.8%	11.3%	21.1%	36.6%	18.3%	4.2%	4.2%	1.4%
1968	2.8%	2.8%	25.4%	45.1%	8.4%	8.5%	1.4%	5.6%
1969	2.8%	18.3%	18.3%	31.0%	14.1%	12.7%	0%	2.8%
1970	2.8%	7.1%	14.0%	46.5%	12.7%	7.0%	4.3%	5.6%
1971	5.6%	2.9%	21.1%	32.4%	12.6%	15.5%	4.3%	5.6%
1972	7.0%	8.5%	18.3%	35.2%	21.1%	9.9%	0%	0%
Ave.	3.8%	7.4%	19.4%	37.5%	16.7%	9.7%	2.1%	3.3%

TABLE 5

Average Annual Percent Change in Price
of Stocks in Portfolios Selected on the
Basis of Large and Small Changes in
Advertising Expenditures as a Percent of Sales*

Year	TOP 5	TOP 10	TOP 15	71 Large Advert.	DJIA	SP 425	BOTTOM 15	BOTTOM 10	BOTTOM 5
1965	+34.20	+42.15	+31.28	+18.60	+10.88	+ 9.88	+14.25	+26.58	+18.90
1966	+12.68	-16.90	-14.35	- 6.80	-18.94	-13.60	- 6.32	+ 0.77	+ 9.58
1967	+30.10	+36.00	+28.22	+33.30	+15.20	+23.53	+62.63	+49.53	+45.60
1968*	+13.04	+15.33	+24.80	+15.90	+ 5.24	+ 8.47	+17.45	+21.52	+23.70
1969	+ 4.83	+ 3.72	+24.40	+ 0.70	-15.19	-10.20	- 0.76	- 5.19	+ 5.26
1970	- 9.90	-13.93	-16.60	+ 0.40	+ 4.82	- 0.58	+ 9.05	+12.59	+ 4.84
1971	+ 8.60	+10.88	+13.40	+16.10	+ 6.11	+11.71	+13.24	+ 9.43	+15.46
1972	+18.80	+18.90	+16.20	+17.10	+14.58	+16.10	+20.30	+23.49	+12.00
$\overline{X}$	+14.04	+12.02	+13.42	+11.91	+ 2.84	+ 5.66	+16.23	+17.34	+16.89
Std. Dev. of Ann. Pr. Changes	+13.12	+19.75	+17.56	+12.10	+12.12	+12.00	+19.47	+15.98	+12.45
Coeff. Var. of Ann. Pr. Changes	+ .93	+ 1.64	+ 1.31	+ 1.02	+ 4.27	+ 2.12	+ 1.20	+ .92	+ .74

TABLE 6

Average Annual Percent Change in Price of
Stocks in Portfolios Selected on the Basis of
Large and Small Changes in Advertising Expenditures
as a Percent of Sales During Previous Year

Year	TOP 5	TOP 10	TOP 15	71 Large Advert.	DJIA	SP 425	BOTTOM 15	BOTTOM 10	BOTTOM 5
1966	- 8.86	-11.86	- 7.31	- 6.80	-18.94	-13.60	-13.64	-19.48	-19.12
1967	+26.60	+29.60	+31.15	+33.30	+15.20	+23.53	+65.24	+60.64	+66.08
1968	+23.16	+16.83	+19.62	+15.90	+ 5.24	+ 8.47	+21.62	+10.22	+15.28
1969	+16.28	+ 6.69	+ 1.80	+ 0.70	-15.19	-10.20	+ 1.63	+11.75	+ 6.50
1970	+ 2.38	+ 2.26	- 5.17	+ 0.40	+ 4.82	- 0.53	+ 0.57	+ 2.21	- 2.16
1971	+12.44	+18.18	+12.13	+16.10	+ 6.11	+11.71	+19.21	+23.14	+29.52
1972	+ 5.92	+11.19	+12.10	+17.10	+14.58	+16.10	+10.33	+13.62	+ 7.94
$\bar{X}$	+11.13	+10.41	+ 9.19	+10.96	+ 1.69	+ 5.06	+15.07	+14.59	+14.86
Std. Dev. of Ann. Pr. Changes	+11.44	+12.23	+12.77	+12.65	+12.54	+12.72	+23.33	+22.48	+25.07
Coeff. Var. of Ann. Pr. Changes	+ 1.03	+ 1.17	+ 1.39	+ 1.15	+ 7.43	+ 2.51	+ 1.55	+ 1.54	+ 1.69

TABLE 7

Comparison of Top and Bottom Advertising Portfolios to Market Portfolios and Total Sample

Coincident Years

Portfolio	No. of times out of 8 when portfolio superior to:*		
	DJIA	SP 425	71 Large Advert.
Top 5	7 (70)	6 (70, 71)	4 (67, 68, 70, 71)
Top 10	7 (70)	5 (66, 70, 71)	4 (66, 68, 70, 71)
Top 15	7 (70)	6 (66, 70)	3 (66, 67, 70, 71, 72)
Bottom 15	8	8	5 (65, 69, 71)
Bottom 10	8	7 (71)	6 (69, 71)
Bottom 5	6 (70, 72)		6 (71, 72)

Portfolio Purchased Year After

Portfolio	No. of times out of 7 when portfolio superior to:*		
	DJIA	SP 425	71 Large Advert.
Top 5	5 (70, 72)	6 (72)	3 (66, 67, 71, 72)
Top 10	5 (70, 72)	6 (72)	4 (66, 67, 72)
Top 15	5 (70, 72)	5 (70, 72)	2 (66, 67, 70, 71, 72)
Bottom 15	5 (70, 72)	5 (66, 72)	5 (66, 72)
Bottom 10	4 (66, 70, 72)	5 (66, 72)	4 (66, 68, 72)
Bottom 5	4 (66, 70, 72)	4 (66, 70, 72)	3 (66, 68, 70, 72)

*The years in the parentheses indicate the years when the advertising portfolio was not superior to the market and sample portfolios

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STORE BRANDS AND THE NATIONAL ADVERTISER: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE WITH CONTEMPORARY OPTIONS

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It is the basic thesis of this paper that both the quantity and quality of national advertising (the advertising of the traditional producers of consumer products) may need to undergo significant change due, in large part, to the ascendancy of the store-controlled brand. Further, that there are many similarities in the contemporary situation faced by national advertisers to that of an earlier time in American marketing, and that the contemporary options may be seen more clearly against such an historical backcloth.

The Contemporary Situation

The so-called "private brand" has traditionally been described as one controlled by a retailer or wholesaler rather than the manufacturer. But such a broad definition encompasses both too much and too little for analytical purposes. Too *much*, because, as Weiss has observed:

> What all of the current merchandising furor is about is not the traditional private brand at all! The *traditional* private label was rarely advertised--rarely presold. Usually it offered poor quality and poor value. The current excitement revolves around distributor-controlled and advertised brands--and more particularly, controlled brands distributed and advertised by our giant retailers and giant wholesalers. With increasing frequency these are presold brands.[1]

Thus, to throw in the uneven assortment of "private labels" with the carefully merchandised offerings of, say, Sears, Wards, Grants, Penneys, Woolworths, A&P, Jewel, and so on, is to vastly oversimplify the current battle of the marketplace.

But the definition is also too *little*, to the extent that the onrushing trend of "vertical integration" has led to a blurring of the traditional distinctions between manufacturer, wholesaler, and retailer. By way of example, Sears now owns outright, or owns controlling interest in, firms accounting for over 50% of its total volume.[2] As this manufacturing capability increases, will Sears be only a retailer in any traditional sense? And what of firms such as Singer with their own retail outlets? Solely manufacturers? Other examples abound.

Thus, in an attempt to do justice to the major forces in this arena of merchandising flux, we will discuss the potential influence of "store brands"--meaning, with Weiss, those products controlled and merchandised by the country's giants of retailing and wholesaling. Now, what of their impact?

Certainly, our own excursions through supermarkets, drug stores, department stores, discount houses and their brethren, suggest that store brands are with us as never before. And, of course, they occupy the precious shelf and floor space so dear to the marketing plans of manufacturers of consumer goods.

Weiss, who has developed a series of extensive reports on store brands beginning in 1959, has noted a number of persistent trends supporting his recurring prediction that "the time is not far distant when 50 giant retailers will gobble up just about one-half of the nation's retail volume in most of their merchandise classification,"[3] and that as much as 50% of this volume will be accounted for by their own controlled brands. As early as the mid-60s, Weiss saw the major trends supporting the rise of store brands as these:[4]

1) The drop in consumer loyalty to many manufacturer brands. Although estimates very, there is apparently general agreement that store brands now account for a growing percentage of total retail volume and that they are dominant in an increasing number of merchandise categories.

2) The better value often offered by store-controlled brands. Obviously, it is difficult to objectify "value." Quantitatively, the price differential between "national" and store brands is usually in the 15-25% range. In addition, studies such as the Burgoyne Index's Annual Shopper Study reveal that a majority of shoppers rate the quality of private label brands as equal to that of nationally advertised brands of producers.[5]

3) The growing similarity of brands within given merchandise categories. This is perhaps *the* key factor opening the door for the *quantitative* value of store brands. This fact of marketing life may be due in large part to the increasingly sophisticated research and development capabilities typical of firms in ologopolistic competition.

4) The growing knowledge among shoppers that store brands are often the Siamese twins of manufacturers brands--at lower prices.

This contention deserves particular emphasis. In one of its last issues, the advertising trade publication *Printers' Ink*, editorialized about the decline in "brand loyalty" among the producers themselves. They pointed to the declining fortunes of the Brand Names Foundation with these revealing items:

. Campbell Soup was withdrawing because member Heinz was heavily involved in private label production.

. The president of the Manhattan Shirt Company was serving as chairman of the Foundation while his company was running advertisements in the *Daily News Record* offering to produce private-label shirts for retailers.[6]

(A somewhat ironic footnote was the decision of Procter and Gamble to offer Ivory Soap for private labels.[7] According to at least some historians, Ivory was one of four prioneer brands that brought in "national advertising" in the late 1800s.)

As far as the growing awareness of the consuming public that they are often dealing with Tweedledum and Tweedledee, at least one major sociological study[8] has found that, contrary to what might be expected, loyalty to "private" brands is higher among white collar families than blue collar families, perhaps due in part to the greater "knowledge" suggested by Weiss. Supportive evidence that "upscale" families tend to prefer private brands is also offered by a report from retail giant Loblaws,[9] and a recent investigation by Coe.[10] It need hardly be pointed out that we are increasingly a nation of white collar, higher incomed, better educated families.

5) The ongoing trends toward impulse shopping and self-service, which make shelf display of mounting importance, play into the hands of the retailers who control the placement of brands within their outlets. Copious research attests to the influence of these factors in self-service shopping. In addition, there is apparently an important movement by the giant retailers to upgrade their own packaging to compete more effectively with the impressive graphics of national brands, as well as to solidify their own brand images.[11]

6) The increasing willingness of retailers to stand behind their own brands through "satisfaction guaranteed" and warranty efforts that remove much of the risk element involved in the shopper's flirtation with store brands.

7) The pre-sold status of the great chains. Such retailing giants as Sears, Wards, and Grants have dramatically increased their national advertising budgets in support of their own brands. (Sears spends well over $100 million.) Broadcasting's Eugene Katz has referred to the "swift evolution" of retailing from a "local event to a national spectacular."[12]

8) The fact that manufacturers' advertising allowances frequently wind up as dollars spent to promote the retailers' own brands. This is merely a manifestation of a far more general phenomenon--namely, the increasing ability of giant retailers to exercise considerable power in their dealings with many producers. As early as 1964, Grey Advertising noted that manufacturers are increasingly "beset by retailers' demands for more margin, advertising allowances, store-opening contributions and direct-to-consumer shipments...."[13] Thus, what we are talking about is leverage.

Historical Precedent

It is at this point in the investigation then, that we may be able to benefit from a historical perspective. For we have, as earlier suggested, been here before. Excess capacity (which has incidently led many contemporary manufacturers into private label production) was not a major problem for the American consumer goods manufacturer in roughly the last 30 years of the 19th century. He first produced for the consumption of his community. As this was satisfied he began to look to more distant markets. And it was here that the wholesaler entered the picture--to provide certain services of distribution, storage, and procurement of retail outlets that the producer then found difficult to perform. Indeed, the wholesaling function in this country apparently did not appear until the middle of the 19th century.[14]

Now it must be kept in mind that since the manufacturer could sell virtually all he could produce at a reasonable profit, there was little incentive for him to brand his product. His crackers, or soap, or flour would be mixed with similar outputs of other producers and sold in bulk by the retailer. He was, in these and similar cases, marketing an undifferentiated good. And it was this fact, plus the essential services rendered, that enabled the wholesaler to apply increased pressure on the manufacturer. For it was the wholesaler who was in contact with the retailer who was, in turn, the link to the ultimate consumer. As Norris has observed:

> Thus, consumers' wishes, expressed to retailers were conveyed to the wholesaler and on to the manufacturer. The quantities of various goods wholesalers purchased from manufacturers reflected consumer demand. Wholesalers indicated not only the quantities of goods they desired but the styles and characteristics of these goods as well. In other words, manufacturers produced goods both the quantity and quality of which were stipulated by wholesalers. And it is not hard to see, in these circumstances, from which manufacturers the wholesalers would buy their goods. Being economic men, they would buy them from those manufacturers who were willing to accept the lowest price.[15]

This pressure became particularly acute as the productive capacities of the manufacturers increased and their desire to glean efficient return on their capital investments mounted. As a result of this restrictive situation, the income of many manufacturers was driven down very close to the cost of production. In essence, the producer had lost some precious leverage in the marketing process.

It was at this point that certain producers exercised a powerful option (which patent medicine manufacturers had earlier seen); they differentiated their products--took them out of the cracker barrel if you will--first through assuming the packaging function themselves and affixing a brand to the package, and secondly, as Kaldor has stated, by advertising "over the heads of the wholesalers to the ultimate buyers, the consuming public."[16] With consumer demand thus channeled toward specific brands of previously undifferentiated goods, the retailers and the wholesalers were left with little choice except to do business with the enterprising producers of the branded goods. This, in turn, helped place the manufacturer back in the marketing driver's seat.

Thus, there is historical evidence to suggest that national advertising by manufacturers in America arose not to increase sales per se, but to attempt to regain some economic control from the market--to enable the producer to be a "price seeker" rather than a "price taker." (It is interesting to note that the wholesaler as a major factor in the rise of national advertising is virtually ignored in most advertising texts.)

Contemporary Parallels

Now, what has this to do with the contemporary marketing scene? We would suggest there are at least two important similarities.

(1) Essentially undifferentiated goods. Many of today's products are undifferentiated within product classes at the level of performance. They are, of course, differentiated by branding, packaging, advertising, promotion, and other marketing stratagems, but are often quite similar to their competitors in terms of differences essential to their perceived performance. Charles Eldridge, former vice president in charge of marketing for General Foods, noted this important fact of the contemporary consumer goods market:

> Product differences tend to disappear. They tend toward a dead level of relative uniformity--not of mediocrity but of high quality. It has become increasingly difficult for any marketer to endow his product with any meaningful superiority or exclusive features, and even more difficult to retain that superiority, even if he is fortunate enough to obtain a temporary advantage.[17]

This trend, as previously mentioned, is apparently due in part to the pressures to rely upon a basic design to benefit from the economies of mass production, as well as the sophisticated research and development capabilities of oligopolistic firms. Even in today's increasingly fragmented markets, the rapid proliferation of essentially identical goods is obvious at even the most casual inspection. It is yet another way of minimizing risk in the hazardous arena of new product marketing.[18]

(2) The dominance of an intermediary. The 19th century producer was ultimately faced with the problem of wrestling control from the powerful wholesaler. His counterpart of the 1970s faces a love/hate relationship with the giant retailer. In the early 1960s, Good Housekeeping ran a prophetic trade ad with the headline, "National Brand or Private Label--Who's Going to 'Own' the Grocery Business in the Years Ahead?"[19] They were, of course, quite serious in their query. For even then the leverage of the contemporary intermediary had become clear. And as a major advertising agency began to discuss the real possibility of large national advertisers franchising the so-called "Mom and Pop" stores "where they can have better control of their distributive dollar,"[2] it became increasingly apparent new battle lines were being drawn.

Some Present and Future Options

In retrospect then, the decision of some of the pioneering consumer goods advertisers of a century ago to attempt to "pull" their goods through the distribution channels by stimulating selective demand seems an appropriate utilization of an available low risk option. The contemporary producer, once again faced with the possibility of the erosion of market control at the hands of an intermediary, is faced with choices they, we believe, are considerably more complex. The following would appear to be some of the more obvious options:

(1) Continue to attempt, through advertising, promotion, and product innovation, to establish and maintain brand loyalty while distributing through traditional retail outlets.

Certainly this is the practice currently endorsed in whole or in part by many producers of consumer goods. It is, of course, a compelling choice *if* the manufacturer can link his brand with functional or psychological values appropriate to a large enough segment of the consumer market. However, given the growing sophistication of the shopping population, the essential parity of research and development capabilities, and the growing volume of advertising that may serve to diminish the effect of any one part, this may be an increasingly tenuous choice. Some indication of the difficulties involved is the increasing reliance upon promotion, in the form of trade and consumer deals, *in addition to* the sizable advertising expenditures for the introduction of new products. Nielsen has found that these expenditures (a testimony to the difficulty of securing both distribution and selective demand) often rival advertising outlays and "also, except in rare instances, depress the companies total profits during the years when the brand is fighting for a place in the sun."[21] It need hardly be added that the sum may be effectively blocked by the brands of competing producers, as well as those of the chains, long before acceptable profit levels are reached.

(2) *Produce for the store brands*. This, as we all know, is an option with apparent appeal to many producers. It offers the potential for efficient use of productive capacity through the seductive volume of the great chains, and reduces the costs and energy incurred in the stimulation of market demand for at least some of the income-producing production. But, as was the case with the 19th century producers who came to regard the wholesaler as their market, there is an obvious danger here. Specifically, *given the increasing similarity of goods* (actual or perceived), the giant retailer is placed in the enviable position of being able to play one producer against another, while wresting price and/or promotional concessions in the process. David Ogilvy has reflected on this dilemma of the supplier of private label goods when discussing his agency's successful effort to lift Hathaway shirts from what he described as an "impotent" private brand situation to national prominence as a brand in its own right.[22] In essence, as Ogilvy suggested, as long as similar goods (or goods *perceived by the customer to be similar*) can be obtained from many sources, the individual producer's position can be marginal indeed.

(3) *Establish direct or indirect control over retail outlets.* Obviously this is an option already pursued by some producers. In addition, as earlier noted, at least one major advertising agency has suggested the possibility of producers of national brands establishing franchise arrangements with small retail outlets, where the producers will be freed from the leverage of the giant retailers and their resources. It is difficult to speculate on the possible success of such ventures. Among the major imponderables are the uncertain moods of consumers concerning one-stop or multiple-shop shopping patterns. (Probably the mass retailer would hold some advantage if single stop shopping is preferred.) In either case, however, the store brands would still presumably be offered at lower prices.

Still another confounding factor is the recent efforts of a growing number of giant retailers to offer their own brands to *other* retailers. Thus, as Weiss observes, "The private label is now emerging as a rival to the manufacturer's label over a considerably broader area of distribution than is generally realized."[23] Among other things, this raises the intriguing possibility of a salesman for a giant retailer and a salesman for a national manufacturer calling on an independent retailer and attempting to sell him *precisely* the same product under different brands.

The biggest single drawback concerning the option of a producer opening his own retail outlets is probably the expertise required for a successful retailing operation. In addition, as noted above, it must be assumed that the consumer will alter his or her shopping patterns to include an additional stop, since in all probability the firm's products are now purchased, along with others, at a single outlet.

(4) Finally, we suggest that a fourth option open to the national producer of consumer goods is to attempt to establish brand loyalty on non-product levels. The manufacturer electing this option in whole or in part (initially, most likely in part) would, in effect, be operating on the premise that he must attract consumer loyalty in a context where his product is not likely to be perceived as significantly different than competing brands of other producers and giant retailers, and will have a price disadvantage compared to many store brands. Within these difficult confines he will be attempting to reestablish the leverage held by many producers since they first took their products out of the cracker barrel to establish powerful brand franchises. But this time his options are narrowed:

. His products are not likely to be perceived as greatly different than that of lower priced competition.

. Attempts at differentiation through the various gambits of sales promotion are often, at best, short run factors and, at worst, an additional drain of profits.

. Efforts to assume the functional similarity of products and operate in the psychological/sociological realm of association and feeling are, under ideal conditions, chancy, and given the increasing savvy of many of today's shoppers, possibly counterproductive.

But, beyond these considerations, perhaps the contemporary producer may work within these "givens" to attempt to establish consumer loyalty based on simple gratitude--a feeling of trust between consumer and producer stimulated by what we may call "acts of conspicuous good will aimed at appropriate market segments.

Now what we are discussing here is not simply a high blown "corporate relations" program, but rather a series of corporate acts with market direction. It would not seem unfeasible, for example, to expect the donation of parks and playgrounds designed for the enjoyment of particular market segments (e.g., the elderly, young families with children), the sponsorship of major activities in the arts, the underwriting of appropriate medical and recreational facilities, and so forth. In the media we could expect messages directed toward the alleviation of consumer problems, a return to sponsorship of broadcast programming, the utilization of commercial time and space to stimulate, entertain, inform. This is not meant to be seen as simply another form of the company's existing philanthrophic or public relations activities. It could be, rather, a strategic, market-oriented program involving an option that seems likely to enable the enterprising producer to regain some degree of market control in an environment currently conducive to the erosion of that control.

Such an undertaking would have far reaching implications for the quantity and quality of advertising messages (as suggested above) as well as branding and *packaging*. For, in order for the "acts of conspicuous good will" to earn the gratitude of potential market segments, advertising support *above the brand level* would seem the most efficient stimulus. If a consumer feels gratitude toward a particular firm, there will be little opportunity for expression if the company's products march under autonomous brand names. Thus, an emphasis on *trans-brand corporate identification* would seem desirable, with individual brands gradually subordinated to an easily identifiable company brand. It seems evident that this trend is well underway with giant retailers such as Sears, A&P, and the "Superbrand" concept of Supermarkets General Corporation,[24] and is recognizable at the manufacturer level as well. Packaging would, of course, follow suit, as would all company graphics.

Would increasingly sophisticated shoppers respond to a vague feeling of gratitude rather than imperatives such as price, convenience, etc.? We don't know. But it seems quite likely that a better educated and affluent citizenry caught in an increasingly bewildering society, could well respond positively to corporate acts that in some way make their lives somewhat easier to live, even as these efforts are perceived (and *acknowledged*) as pecuniary in nature.

This would then, result in accentuating the meshing of interests of the so-called "public" and "private" sectors of our society. Discussing the current *friction* between these interests under the rubric of "Consumerism" Weiss has stated:

> The new competition between rival corporations will include a competition--believe it or not--to cater to the public's rising tide of expectations in corporate social philosophy, in product and in marketing.[25]

Given the growth of the giant retailers and the resulting leverage of the store brands, Weiss's prediction may represent nothing more than sound profit-oriented thinking in the marketplace of the last quarter of this century. The options of the contemporary producer, in historical perspective, would seem far less clear than those of an earlier time in American marketing. Yet, the problem remains the same--the assurance of some degree of market control. The options chosen could well have significant impact, not only for the profit-oriented national advertiser, but for the society of which he is a part.

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ADVERTISING VIGNETTES

OR

HOW MUCH HAVE WE LEARNED SINCE THE DAYS OF P. T. BARNUM?

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For the last three years, we have been searching the literature of advertising, marketing, and economics for meaningful ideas and concepts that would lead understanding to the relationship of advertising to society and the social welfare. Our purpose, in the beginning, was to point out contrasts or similarities between past statements and those made more recently. In the process of editing our just published readings book, *Advertising's Role in Society*, the decision was reached to rely only on articles of recent vintage. Many of those written in the past were discarded with considerable reluctance. In this paper, vignettes from our efforts are presented for you to determine whether we have come very far during the last hundred years or so in our understanding of advertising.

Early Business Thoughts on Advertising

For our first interpretation of advertising, the literature of management provides a good beginning. Charles Babbage is considered by many as the father of management. You may know of him as the English inventor of the first mechanical "calculating engine"--a precursor to the computer. Although a master mathematician, he was interested in economics and production. He authored a book titled *On the Economy of Machinery and Manufacturers*. Our source was published by Carey and Lea in Philadelphia in 1832. In the following quotation, there are overtones of a knowledge of Adam Smith's contribution to economics--*An Inquiry Into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*. Babbage expressed his understanding of the advertising process as follows:

> The object of all advertisements is, by making known articles for sale, to procure for them...a larger extent of sale. Now the more any article is known, the more quickly it is discovered whether it contributes to the advantage of the public; and the more quickly its consumption is assured if found valuable.

Smith said the extent of the division of labor in a society was dependent upon the extent of the market. In explanation, he reasoned, "When the market is very small, no person can have any encouragement to dedicate himself entirely to one employment, for want of the power of exchange all that surplus part of the produce of his own labour, which is over and above his own consumption, for such parts of the produce of other men's labour as he has occasion for." His thesis was that the richness of a nation was the result of the extent of its market. Babbage realized this when he explained that one facet of the advertising process was to extend the sale of an article.

The next keyword in the explanation was *quickly*. Babbage fully understood that the advertising process speeded up the consumption of a good. Before the age of advertising and salesmanship, it took three hundred years for the drawer to become an accepted way of storing goods in furniture. In the era of modern marketing, it took about two decades for every home in the United States to have one or more television sets. Both Smith and Babbage were consumption oriented in their analyses. Babbage insisted that the advertising process works only if the article is of value to the consumer. That is, advertising works when consumer benefits are emphasized and perhaps enhanced. Actually, there are few more apt interpretations of the advertising process today.

The next look into the past, we owe to Dr. Karl Reyer, emeritus professor of marketing at Louisiana State University, and a member of this Academy. In casual conversations about advertising, the name of P. T. Barnum is usually mentioned. The most quoted commentary attributed to him is, "A sucker is born every moment."

Recently there was an editorial comment about requests by students and others for information, et cetera to *Advertising Age*. This type of information gathering has been going on for some time. Because of this, P. T. Barnum's thoughts about advertising have been recorded. A letter appears in the book, *A Practical Treatise on Business: Or How to Get, Spend, Give, Lend, and Bequeath Money: With an Inquiry Into the Chances of Success and Causes of Failure in Business*. Edwin T. Freedley, the editor of the book, wrote then telegraphed Mr. Barnum in Bridgeport, Connecticut on June 28, 1852. In reply he received "... a few rules that I am convinced, from experience and observation, must be observed to insure success in business." Among these rules is one titled "Let your pledged word ever be sacred." Elaborating on this, he said, "Nothing is more valuable to a man in business than the name of always doing as he agrees, and that to the moment." This is a strange contrast to the "sucker" commentary.

On advertising he stated, "*Advertise your business. Do not hide your light under a bushel.*" In reply to the Freedley inquiry, he explained in specific words:

> Whatever your occupation or calling may be, if it needs support from the public, advertise it thoroughly and efficiently. In some shape or other, that will arrest public attention. I freely confess that what success I have had in life may fairly be attributed more to the public press than to nearly all other causes combined. There may possibly be occupations that do not require advertising, but I cannot well conceive what they are. Men in business will sometimes tell you that they have tried advertising, and that it did not pay. This is only when advertising is done sparingly and grudgingly. Homeopathic doses of advertising will not pay, perhaps--it is

like half a potion of physic--making the patient sick, but effecting nothing. Administer liberally, and the cure will be sure and permanent. Some say 'they cannot afford to advertise;' they mistake--they cannot afford not to advertise. In this country, where everybody reads the newspapers, where he is to find his customers. Put on the appearance of business, and generally the reality will follow. The farmer plants his seed, and while he is sleeping his corn and potatoes are growing. So with advertising. While you are sleeping or eating or conversing with one set of customers, your advertisement is being read by hundreds and thousands of persons who never saw you, nor heard of your business, and never would, had it not been for your advertisement appearing in the newspapers. The businessmen of this country do not, as a general thing, begin to appreciate the advantages of advertising thoroughly. Occasionally the public are aroused at witnessing the success of a Swaim, a Brandreth, a Townsend, a Hanford or a Root, and express astonishment at the rapidity with which these gentlemen acquire fortunes, not reflecting that the same path is open to all who dare pursue it. But it needs nerve and faith--the former to enable you to launch out thousands on the uncertain waters of the future; the latter to teach you that, after many days, it shall surely return, bringing an hundred or a thousand fold to him who appreciates the advantages of printers' ink, properly applied.

As an aside, we are glad that P. T. Barnum answered the unsolicited inquiry he received in 1852. We know more about him and more about advertising for his having taken the time to reply. His remarks emphasized the necessity to maintain continuity in the advertising schedule. Faith in the advertising process was an underlying requisite for business men making advertising decisions even though the results of its use were not exactly measureable.

The next name to be mentioned became a legend in both the advertising and retail fields. Again, he enunciated lengthily on his analysis of how to advertise successfully. John Wanamaker also believed in the concept of the "extent of the market" and the economist's law of comparative returns. In a talk to the press reviewing his career in 1911, he said, "I am for reciprocity, and, from long experience and expensive schooling, I fully understand the revising the tariff, and I believe it to be to the interest of American consumers to readjust the tariff in many particulars, and for the benefit of manufacturers to do it downward, to increase employments by larger sales of goods at lower prices." He carried this thinking through to the domestic market when as Postmaster General, he underwrote the Parcel Post. In this same speech, his words were, "I am in favor of the Parcel Post for the ninety millions of people in the entire United States, even if the act establishing it should exclude the storekeepers in five hundred largest cities of the United States, ourselves among them, whose sales exceed five million. Why should ninety million people lose daily benefits because five hundred storekeepers, or one million storekeepers are against it? ... I firmly believe that the adoption of the Parcel Post ... will ... when in operation, benefit the storekeepers, compelling them to meet new conditions, make better stores and be sources of supply to the various sections in which they live." In his thinking, extending the market encouraged competition.

Wanamaker deferred to William Penn in thinking about the use of advertising. In a privately published book celebrating the first 50 years of his retail store's existence, which had become the world's largest department store, the observation was made the "Penn was wise enough to advertise in such a way as to make loving friends." This book tells the following:

> At 6:30 on Monday morning, April 8, 1861, John Wanamaker and Nathan Brown, as partners, opened 'Oak Hall' as a Mens' Boys' Clothing Store...
>
> At the close of the first day the cash drawer revealed a total intake of $24.67.
>
> Of this sum $24 was spent for advertising and 67 cents saved for making change the next morning.

John Wanamaker has advertised consistently until this day. Along with Barnum, he believed that advertising should be used consistently.

S. S. McClure, editor of McClure's Magazine, touched on another ingredient in Wanamaker's advertising when he commented:

> I think I have heard of John Wanamaker the greater part of my life, I remember in 1876 visiting Philadelphia from Indiana, visiting some old uncles there, who told me about this wonderful man.
>
> 'John Wanamaker is the best advertiser in the world. He is the best advertiser because he is an honest merchant. He is an honest merchant because he is an honest man. Behind the advertisements are honesty and ability of the first rank. He has not succeeded because of his advertisements, but because of the qualities of mind that enabled him to produce these advertisements. He is the foremost merchant of our time.'

In other words, Wanamaker created advertising to serve society in the true sense.

Wanamaker evolved a complete understanding of the advertising process during his career. Much of this has been cataloged in the aforementioned book titled the Golden Book of the Wanamaker Stores: 1861-1971. The spirit of Wanamaker's advertising was analyzed in the following words:

- A real first aid to the buying public.
- Absolute accuracy and frankness of statement.
- Readable type and original display.
- Clear expression.
- Freshness, newsiness and distinct style.
- Thorough investigation of merchandise.
- Systematic and logical presentation.
- Always an optimistic outlook.
- Justice to the manufacturer, the customer, the competitor, and to the merchandise.
- The store's personality.

Mix these ingredients on your palette, and you can paint the picture yourself, or you can see it in the daily Wanamaker advertising pages. These are useful guidelines today. If our nation's advertisers followed them conscientiously, social critics might not have been as negative in their comments as they are today.

What was Wanamaker's judgement of advertising effectiveness? He has been quoted as saying that "Half of monies spent for advertising is wasted but I do not know which half." This is an inaccurate paraphrasing of the actual remarks as reported in the Golden Book:

> Genuinely good advertising must give in working something that will be read about the goods that are wanted and that will present clearly and exactly what goods are. It is generally known that common advertising is like barrels of seed in which half the seed is dead. If all advertising were believed and the goods of the valve stated, stores could be made twice as large and business twice as good. It used to be said that it was only necessary to put the name of the store in the newspaper, repeating it over and over for emphasis, that the space might be filled in a striking manner, and thus get the name of the store known to the public--it was thought this was the whole of advertising. Now we know that publicity has a larger and finer field than this--that it must be informative, educative, productive--in a word scientific.

What he meant was that bad advertising was under or counter-productive. Properly prepared advertising continuously used, in his mind, was effective--and doubly so.

In August, 1872, Aaron Montgomery Ward started a mail-order business in Chicago. The merchandise was shipped by express (often pooled) to fill the orders solicited from the half million Granges in the middlewest. The informative price lists mailed out were the first form of advertising. Ward's first advertisement appeared in the Prairie Farmer on September 27, 1873. Many farm journals were added to the schedule during the following years. Wanamaker made the proposal for "Rural Free Delivery" in 1891. R.F.D. was approved by Congress in 1893, but was not instituted until some time later. As mentioned in one of the Wanamaker quotations, the merchants along with their newspaper editors waged a continuing propaganda war against the R.F.D. experiment. After the system became a reality, the assult continued. The mail-order catalog, a burgeoning from of advertising, reduced the cost of goods to the people living on the farms and in the small rural towns. "Satisfaction Guaranteed or Your Money Back" applied one of the Wanamaker tenets in a new way. This was the company's form of consumer concern--implemented as a successful advertising venture Many of the advertisements were used to counteract the derogatory propaganda of the time. Today, this advertising would be referred to as corporate advertising. The copy for one advertisement scheduled for The Farmers' Voice stated:

> ...We started this mail order business and made it such a success that there is scarcely a department store in the land which has not tried it too. They all, without exception, imitate our methods as far as they can find them out; they all want to know: 'How does Montgomery Ward & Co. do it?' We will tell you.

> We carry the goods in stock and are the only firm who can honestly say so. We attend to the mail order business alone. It is not a side issue with us, but our entire business. We have no retail trade to bother us and delay us. We study methods of improving our business as we would a science. We imitate no one.

Advertising and consumer concern were the foundation stone for the business.

A Neoclassicla Economist's View

These selected early business views suggest that perhaps there were also economic views of advertising at this time. On perusal of the standard texts on the history of economic thought one finds that the word advertising is not mentioned until the time of Alfred Marshall. And usually, Marshall's comment is referred to with regard to Chamberlin's theory of imperfect or monopolistic competition that developed in the 1930's. After the 1890's, the growth of advertising in the United States was considerable. Marshall's basic economics text appeared in 1890. This coincidence may have suggested his mentioning the activity. Later in his book, Industry and Trade, published in 1919, he categorized advertising into the "constructive" and the "combative," or informative and persuasive, respectively. This construct established a critical field of play for those social commentators who looked on advertising with disfavor.

In discussing retail trade Marshall understood that advertising could reduce the costs of making and selling goods. He referred to An Approach to Business Problems, a book written by A. W. Shaw, who was then a publisher of a business periodical System Magazine. His note read, thusly:

> The economies of massive production of men's clothing have been carried much further in America than elsewhere: and it is said that fairly well fitting men's clothes can be bought there at a less advance on the cost of material than in England: for since many well-to-do people are willing to buy ready-made clothes, the trade in them is of gigantic dimensions, and gives scope for lavish advertising.

On this basis he felt cost of distribution was high without considering the savings in new production and distribution methods implied in the above statement. He felt that too much was charged the consumer "for the services of ...trade." Developing this thought, "...there remains a less obvious cause to be considered: it is that much of modern expenditure on advertising is not constructive but combative." He conceded that particular transactions such as print advertising as "horses for sale" and advertisements "explaining to people generally the claims of some new thing" were commandable and thus constructive. Marshall thought iterative advertising coupled with a statement of excellent quality combative and thus wasteful. After preliminary advertising, a product becomes known. Specifically, the comment was, "The chief influence of such advertisement (combative) is exerted, not through reason, but through the blind force of habit: people, in general are, for good or evil, inclined to prefer that which is familiar to that which is not." In explanation, he concluded, "The lavish advertiser must deduct his expenses from the gross profits of his additional sales: while rivals whom he ousts lose their gross profits, and thus enters one element of social waste." Another element of social waste "caused by bold displayed advertisements, is the relative obscurity into which they are disigned to throw, and do throw, the smaller advertisements of less wealthy men; some of whom may have high constructive faculty."

Marshall's comment made fashionable the social criticism of advertising that has persisted until this day. He also observed that "psychology had been pressed into service" by the advertiser. Economic views through the years have received their sustenance from Marshall's original seed.

Psychology, initially on an applied level, began contributing views about advertising during the early years of this century. Frank Channing Haddock, Ph.D wrote a book in 1910 which he called Business Power. One part of the four-part book was titled "Psychology in Business." In this section, he stated that advertising was a business, a science, and an art. Continuing, his explanation began, "This particular trinity at the bottom is psychological. Its keynote is 'suggestion....' You must, therefore, create in him a particular appetite for your values." He sums up his comments by an unidentified quotation:

> 'Advertising is that subtle, indefinable, but powerful force whereby the advertiser creates a demand for a given article in the minds of a great many people, or arouses the demand that is already there in latent form.'

In the book he presents under the "Aims of Advertising" in paraphrase form the AIDA formula which first appeared in Shaw's magazine in 1898--Attention, Interest, and Desire, with Action being added in 1911. In 1910, Haddock's fourth step was to secure prompt sales.

The first areas of psychological concern were actually abstracted from the literature of business. Advertising psychology was formalized into a field of study by Walter Dill Scott in 1903 under the title Theory of Advertising. The book was published for textbook purposes in 1921 with the title The Psychology of Practical Advertising.

Advertising also appeared in the first modern text in 1918 after initial classroom use by Ralph Starr Butler at the University of Wisconsin in 1911. The 1918 book was published by the Alexander Hamilton Institute as a volume in its business correspondence course and titled Marketing and Merchandising--collaboration between the Institute's editors and a team composed of Butler and John B. Swinney. This book explained advertising in combination with salesmanship: "If ...he (the manufacturer) is putting on the market a branded commodity or one which may be sold from description, it may be possible for advertising to take the place of personal salesmanship so far as calling on consumers and retail dealers are concerned. In most instances, new articles are introduced and sustained by a combination of both salesmanship and advertising, introduced by one combination and supported by another kind. The nature of the goods to be sold is the most important consideration in arriving at a selling method"--a mini-marketing mix.

The Pioneering Psychologists

Walter Dill Scott was the first social scientist to develop a theoretical construct for understanding advertising. This schematic interpretation with a lengthy explanation appeared in his preliminary book *The Theory of Advertising*, published by Small, Maynard and Company of Boston in 1903. The final text, retitled *The Psychology of Advertising*, was published by Dodd, Mead and Company of New York. His construct is too lengthy to include in the paper. Mertes has explored his thought in relation to modern communication theory in a paper published in the *Journal of Southern Business*, July, 1969, under the title, "The Continuity of Marketing Thought." In 1913, Harry L. Hollingsworth published his book *Advertising and Selling*. The work of the pioneering psychologists concentrated on specific reader behavior toward advertisements. The book included much of the research done in the advertising arena up to that time. As psychologists, they did not imbue their work with economic, business, aesthetic or ethical values. E. K. Strong in his 1938 book titled, *Psychological Aspects of Business*, published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, in discussing advertising appeals summed up the purpose of an advertisement by saying:

> Appeal performs four different functions, namely:
>
> 1. To intensify the prospect's wants.
> 2. To demonstrate that the solution is adequate.
> 3. To facilitate action.
> 4. To guarantee that the solution will be satisfactory for a reasonable length of time.

A Marketing/Economist's View

One more vignette will close our comments. Floyd L. Vaughan, who received his doctorate at Wisconsin University during the flowering of institutional economics and marketing instruction, made an economic evaluation of advertising in 1928. The book was published by Princeton University Press with the title *Marketing and Advertising: An Economic Appraisal*. Vaughan had a chapter on the social cost of advertising. His concluding remarks were:

> The shift in the basis of competition from price to quality and service discourages economy in production. Today many manufacturers think less of making products economically and more of selling them effectively. Factory costs inevitably receive less attention since a lower price is now of less importance in selling commodities. On the other hand, the importance of marketing stimulates excessive expenditures for advertising and salesmen, especially the former, much of which is wasted. Less emphasis upon efficiency in manufacture and a greater expenditure for advertising to create psychological atmosphere, augment the cost of goods. Of these two factors the waste in advertising...is by far, the more significant. It goes a long way toward explaining the fact that the proportion of the consumer's dollar which defrays the cost of marketing is high and continues to rise.

Viewpoints such as Vaughan's served to initiate the consumer movement of the early 1930's, which is closely akin to today's "consumerism." *Consumer Reports* and similar "other sources of information" were resorted to in making buying decisions.

At the start of this paper, we mentioned that comparing the comments of yesteryear with current commentary was rejected as a format for our book. The past is of more than scholarly interest, however, for it gives us a better insight into the continuing stream of critical thought when advertising is considered a social issue. Our book Advertising's Role In Society explores the various viewpoints covered in this paper in a contemporary vein. You may find the scenario comparable or different from that of yesterday. The readings were selected for this purpose. For example, Frank Presbrey in his definitive book The History and Development of Advertising, written in 1929, concluded with a chapter on advertising as a social force. His last paragraphs were his scenario on the future of advertising in this respect.

> Advertising, by reason of its technique, possesses peculiar power as an educative force. An extension of this power into fields now scarcely dreamed of for it, is not improbable. Who knows what it may some day be doing? A sociologist whose plan for social betterment is contained in the two volumes of his dynamic sociology finds that fundamentally there is one thing the matter with the world--ignorance. If everybody had all the knowledge that exists and is available, and applied it, there would be very little unhappiness. His method for giving happiness to everyone is education of every human being in the sciences and all real knowledge. Then we should all know how to be happy.
>
> His belief is that all wrongdoing can be done away with, and by means other than punitory restraints. The way is to make right doing in every action so pleasant that no person would have any desire to do wrong.
>
> The ultima Thule may some day be reached. The thought in introducing it here, in the closing paragraph of a book on advertising, is that modern advertising has made the life of the masses so much more pleasant by painting attractive pictures of the things that make it so, and has completely demonstrated its ability to influence the thought of people of all classes, that when it comes to that big, all comprehensive job of achieving an ideal state the potent force of advertising will be least be one of the agencies through which it will be accomplished.

What will be your students' projection of advertising as a social force into the future?

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CONSIDERATION IN THE USE OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING

by
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Although the phenomenon of comparative advertising is not new, its use has burgeoned within the last few years to the extent that it might by now be regarded as a trend. Comparative advertising may therefore be a legitimate subject for scrutiny when examining the regulation of advertising.

As of 1 January 1974, the Federal Trade Commission has not promulgated a definition of comparative advertising even though as early as October 1971 the FTC's director of consumer protection (Robert Pitofsky) had corresponded with television networks about "advertising which identified by name specific competitors.[1] In a letter to the Washington (D.C.) Post published 12 September 1973, Gerald J. Thain, assistant director for national advertising for the same bureau of the FTC, noted "advertising which refers to competing products by specific brand names...."[2]

In a front-page article published in December 1973, the Wall Street Journal discussed "comparative advertising, in which an advertiser names the names of its competitors...."[3] An operational definition was published by the National Broadcasting Company in January 1974; it refers, under the heading "Comparative Advertising Guidelines," to "advertising in which a competitor is named or otherwise identified."[4]

It is this type of advertising which I propose to examine in this paper.

So saying, I have rejected a detailed study of advertising that compares a product with a whole class of products. The Norelco ad says "We dare to match shaves with a blade. Any blade" and shows a Norelco shaver next to a straight razor.[5] Greyhound says "Often faster than flying" in promotive Greyhound Package Express.[6] The American Wood Council finds wood better in several ways than steel, aluminum, or masonry.[7] Steinway compares the popularity of Steinway pianos and "other" pianos.[8] MGA sees its color television sets as superior to attributes of "most" sets.[9] Motel 6 compares the appointments and prices of its motels with those of "other motel rooms."[10]

Somewhat less broad are advertisements which use other brands without their brand names. Zenith asks questions about repairs and brand preferences of television "service technicians" and gives the results in terms of Zenith as compared with Brand A, Brand B, etc.[11] Iceberg 10 compares its tar and nicotine content with the tar and nicotine in other brands 1 through 5 of cigarettes.[12]

The use of such Brand X advertising was common when advertisers felt that it was about as far as they could go in comparative advertising under FTC regulations. Advertisers apparently were fearful of accusations of disparagement if they referred to competitive brands, even indirectly.

An outstanding exception to this belief was Avis, which has been using head-on comparative advertising since 1963 when Avis hired Doyle Dane Bernbach advertising agency to "create $5 million worth of advertising on a $1 million budget."[13] The "we try harder" campaign that DDB created for Avis began in late 1963 and so did the climb in Avis' revenues--from $35 million in 1963 to $44 million in 1964[14] and to $535.8 million in rental-car revenues in 1973.[15]

Avis has continued this approach through the years. They allowed Hertz to outspend them, maintaining their "little guy" image despite their being owned by ITT.[16] In 1973, after Hertz had saturated the rental car business with their "Let Hertz put you in the driver's seat," Avis countered with the line: "When it comes to putting you in the car, no one is faster than Avis."[17] This served to introduce Avis' $13 million computer system, dramatized as the Wizard, designed to give Avis an edge over Hertz.[18] The battle of comparative car rental advertising goes on.

The event that started comparative advertising's rise to its current prominence was the 1971 decision of the Federal Trade Commission to ask the ABC and CBS television networks to "permit advertisers to name competing products when making comparative claims.[19]

NBC had been accepting substantiated comparative ads for eight years; CBS and ABC had refused.[20] They felt that "naming competitors constituted 'disparaging' advertising and shouldn't be permitted.[21] Making two sets of commercials---comparative for NBC, non-comparative for ABC and CBS--cost too much for many advertisers, who decided to settle for ads without direct comparisons.[22]

Then came the FTC's decision to encourage comparative advertising. On 19 October 1971 Robert Pitofsky, FTC's director of consumer protection, wrote to CBS and ABC expressing concern that their requiring such circumlocutions as "Brand X" or "a leading brand" could result in preventing "the consumer from receiving information which is relevant and useful in making an informed choice between competing brands, and may in some cases result in the consumer being misled or deceived." The FTC staff expressed its view that "such policies provide consumers with information which is less usable than would be the case if specific comparatives were made, and also that general comparisons can result in the disparagement of innocent competitors who might be confused in the consumer's mind with 'Brand X.'"[23]

So it was that in March 1972, following the FTC's encouragement in the preceding October, CBS and ABC reached "voluntary agreements" to permit a one-year trial of comparative advertising.[24] Since then they have "come to allow comparatives as a permanent policy."[25]

The use of comparative advertising was credited by Schick, Inc., with an increase of market share from 8.1% to 21% in a year's time. In this 1972 advertising, Schick claimed superiority to Norelco, Remington and Sunbeam shavers. But the increase in its share of the electric shaver market also led Schick into a rash of law suits brought by the named competitors. And Ronson, not named by Schick, ran ads asking "Why didn't Schick include a Ronson electric shaver in their comparison tests?"[26]

After studying the Schick campaign of comparative advertising, the National Advertising Review Board issued an adverse ruling on the "over-all implications" of Schick's campaign. Commenting on this in an editorial entitled "Comparative ads valid--if," *Advertising Age* said that the adverse ruling given Schick "won't stop solidly designed comparative advertising, it should kill misleading or dumb comparative advertising.... It is better that advertisers think more intently about their so-called brand superiority claims than continue to mount misleading or meaningless and, in the final analysis, counter-productive comparative ad campaigns.... Comparative advertising remains a valid and desirable marketing tactic.[27]

Perhaps to offset any timidity about comparative advertising that Schick's adverse ruling might engender, NBC used its long experience with comparative advertising to issue in January 1974 what it called "Comparative advertising guidelines." In publishing these guidelines, NBC's Department of Broadcast Standards said:

"As a result of increased interest in the use of comparative advertising, the Department of Broadcast Standards has re-examined its long-standing policies governing advertising in which a competitor is named or otherwise identified. In the future all such advertising will be reviewed subject to the following general guidelines:

1. The products identified in the advertising must actually be in competition with one another.
2. Competitors shall be fairly and properly identified.
3. Advertisers shall refrain from discrediting, disparaging or unfairly attacking competitors, competing products or other industries.
4. The identification must be for comparison purposes and not simply to upgrade by association.
5. The advertising should compare related or similar properties or ingredients of the product, dimension to dimension, feature to feature, or wherever possible be a side-by-side demonstration.
6. The property being compared must be significant in terms of value or usefulness of the product to the consumer.
7. The difference in properties must be measurable and significant."[28]

Publication of these guidelines prompted an *Advertising Age* editorial titled "NBC opts for candor." The first sentence of the editorial says: "The National Broadcasting Co. believes in candid, straightforward, comparative advertising." It concludes: "NBC's unilateral move should encourage the formulation of industry standards by the National Assn. of Broadcasters code board for tv and radio, and by the NARB for all media."[29]

More important, perhaps, than its congratulations to NBC is *Advertising Age's* appreciation of the potential benefits of comparative advertising. In the "NBC opts for candor" editorial, buyers are described as facing "a multitude of choices in the marketplace. The advertiser who puts his product into perspective vis-à-vis the competition simplifies the consumer's shopping chores. American Motors shows how in the commercials which lead drivers through the fine-print maze of the new-car warranty. Price comparisons for items like tissues and napkins are helpful, particularly for the working woman who fills her supermarket cart on the run."[30]

The desideratum of helping the consumer recurs often in the Federal Trade Commission's published comments on comparative advertising. In the letter sent to ABC and CBS by the FTC's director of consumer protection in 1961, Robert Pitofsky said that restrictions on comparative advertising "may prevent the consumer from receiving information which is relevant and useful in making an informed choice between competing products, and may in some cases result in the consumer being misled or deceived."[31]

More recently, Gerald Thain, assistant director for national advertising of the FTC's bureau of consumer protection, said "Brand X comparisons are not illegal as such." But Thain feels that advertisements using Brand X may mislead. "Consumers may mistakenly suppose that the unknown brand is the field leader, whereas it may be a lesser brand. And it may be that the advertised brand is superior only to the lesser brand, not to the market leader. There is no explicit misrepresentation here, but the consumer gets the wrong impression of the product...with explicit naming, both the consumer and competitors benefit."[32] "Advertising's purpose is to disseminate information to consumers, information which they may or may not use when deciding on a purchase."[33]

Like the Federal Trade Commission, the Consumer Federation of America favors comparative advertising as "a direct move toward more informative advertising."[34] Erma Angevine, former executive director of the CFA, said "I think that if advertisers get into a competitive way of showing information and testing, the consumer will benefit."[35]

Not everyone agrees that comparative advertising benefits consumers by giving information. "Critics charge that rather than just conveying information comparatives allow an underdog to 'position' itself near an industry leader and trade on that brand's reputation. In addition, an advertiser has control of the basis of comparison and the data that support the advertising claim. Critics charge that both elements can be mastered, not to convey dishonest information, but to create an erroneous impression."[36]

In a paper titled "Comparative Advertising...I'm O.K....You're not O.K.," delivered to an American Association of Advertising Agencies meeting, Jack Roberts, director of special creative projects for the Los Angeles office of Ogilvy & Mather Inc. advertising agency, pointed to a danger of comparative advertising. By quietly accepting creeping comparatives, and by being *very very good* at making comparisons, we may not only be damaging the credibility of all advertising, but may very well be assisting the consumers in making a *misinformed* choice.[37]

Mr. Roberts has further reservations about comparative advertising: "...it *is* virtually impossible to make a comparison without trading on another's public acceptance," and "some of it is surely confusing." But he adds: "In any case, like it or not, comparative advertising isn't going to go away."[38]

For the advertiser, a disadvantage of comparative advertising may be the tougher critical standards it must meet. The FTC's Gerald Thain says "You are expected to have better documentation, more than you would for just a general product claim because, after all, you are getting more specific. You should have some reasonably well controlled tests if your kind of claim lends itself to testing."[39]

Another advantage for the advertiser has been expressed thus: "Comparative advertising gives a small company a chance to compete with the big guys; it doesn't have to wait five years for the word to get around."[40]

Marco Brizzolara, president of Brioschi (an antacid marketer), expressed this feeling when he said "Alka-Seltzer has spent great sums of money for advertising during the last 25 years, and, by directly naming it in an ad, Brioschi is able to take advantage of that exposure." Brizzolara emphasized this in pointing out that "by sharply and clearly linking itself to Alka-Seltzer, Brioschi is also able to secure a better position for itself on the retail shelf." Another marketer adds "...when you're trying to break into a market that is very highly competitive, this is a dramatic way to do it."[41]

As for disadvantages of comparative advertising to the advertiser, Jack Roberts, of Ogilvy & Mather, is not alone in worrying about possible confusion of products. Robert Levenson, a creative director at Doyle Dane Bernbach (mentioned above in connection with its advertising for Avis), says that "even when you don't allude to someone else, the proportion of (product) misidentification can be scary." He says that "the target of a comparative ad could in some cases benefit more than the product for which the ad is bought."[42]

Another caveat is issued by John E. O'Toole, president of Foote, Cone & Belding Communications, Inc., an advertising agency. He says he has "always thought it was ill-advised to condemn a leading product when there are a lot of people--who consider themselves very rational people who buy that product and obviously like it."[43]

Is the use of comparative advertising a trend or is it a fad which will disappear when it no longer has shock value?

Gerald Thain, of the FTC's bureau of consumer protection, estimated that as of 1973 comparative advertisements were about one per cent of all advertisements. "I don't think we'll see the day when, say, half of our ads are comparatives. One reason may be the standard marketing practice of emphasizing your own particular product. Another is the fact that a lot of our heavily advertised products are promoted on the basis of taste or personal preference. That kind of thing doesn't really lend itself to the practice of comparative advertising."[44]

The question arises: what kinds of products do lend themselves to promotion by means of comparative advertising? Based on a selection of comparative advertisements published within the last year, one can conclude that marketers of automobiles and liquor tend to regard comparative advertising as a technique useful for their purposes.

Chrysler uses testimonials to let Dodge drivers do the comparing, taking on Impala, Mustang, Toyota, Buick, and Vega in one advertisement. Dodge's slogan "Ask the million who own one" also evokes Packard's famous "Ask the man who owns one."[45]

For its Plymouth, Crysler buys multiple small ads in one issue of a magazine, each ad comparing the Plymouth with a named competitive car: Pinto, Maverick, VW.[46]

Chrysler combines two of its brands of cars in newspaper advertisements comparing Dodge and Plymouth with Volkswagen, Nova, Maverick, Comet, Ventura, Vega, Pinto, and Mustang II.[47]

Automobiles imported to the United States also use comparative advertisements to promote their points of superiority. Even though they name specific names and product features, most of these ads seem fairly low-key in their approaches.[48] Fiat uses bigger and bolder type than some.[49] Volvo[50] and Saab[51] might be regarded as bordering on disparagement in two advertisements that seem to be as much judgmental as factual.

With the sizable number of comparative automobile advertisements visible by consumers, it seems possible that some consumers may wonder about the reasons why some automobile manufacturers do not use comparative advertising, or why they compare one of their brands to another of their own brands.[52] A consumer attuned to comparative advertising which claims specific superiorities of the advertised brand over the attributes of competitive brands may be conditioned to look for these claims; in their absence, he may infer that products not making such claims in their advertising do so because they have no competitive edge and are in fact inferior. The frequency with which these inferences are drawn may be the subject of research in the future if comparative advertising becomes a standard advertising technique.

At least one whiskey marketer uses a somewhat indirect or "cute" approach to comparative advertising. In newspapers and magazines, Old Forester employs headlines with puns on the names of other brands of liquor: "When you prefer your wild turkey with cranberry sauce...go Forestering," "When the only Canadian you like plays hockey...go Forestering," and "When you stop taking a shine to Smirnoff silver...go Forestering."[53]

Somewhat similar advertisements for Cutty Sark whiskey ("If Jay and Bea drop in...Don't give up the ship") were described by Malcolm S. Forbes, editor-in chief of Forbes magazine as "a prize example of dumb advertising."[54]

Presumably Mr. Forbes would favor straight forward comparative advertising for liquor. More important, the Federal Trade Commission would probably approve and perhaps even applaud an advertisement for Raphael aperitif wine which shows a bottle of this wine, imported from France, alongside a bottle of Dubonnet aperitif wine, "made and bottled in U.S.A.", with prices quoted to reinforce the ad's headline "Believe it or not, you save by buying the Imported One."[55] Surely this is one of the "specific comparatives" that can "disseminate information to consumers" held desirable by the FTC's Gerald Thain.

Equally specific though perhaps less vitally interesting to consumers is an advertisement for Don Q. Puerto Rican rum showing a bottle of this rum beside a bottle of Bacardi rum with copy that claims Don Q. as the #1 rum in the Caribbean.[56]

A considerable amount of specific comparative data is given in an advertisement for Fedders air conditioners published by a Fedders retailer. Comparative efficiency ratings are shown for varying capacities of air conditioners sold by Sears, Carrier, G.E., Lennox and York, as well as Fedders, with a source for the data given. Consumers with enough knowledge of physics to comprehend ratings expressed in BTUs per watt may find this advertisement helpfully informative.[57]

Comparative prices are given in an advertisement for StarCrest pantyhose,[58] as recommended by the FTC. However, the illustration of this ad features packages of L'eggs pantyhose, with no picture of the StarCrest package, and at a glance would seem to be an ad for L'eggs. Thus, the danger of an "underdog" trading on the reputation of a leader seems illustrated in this ad; at the best, the ad will probably be a source of confusion (between L'eggs and StarCrest) for many consumers.

Apparently, Purex has attempted to fulfill the expressed wishes of the Federal Trade Commission and the Consumer Federation of America in its advertisement comparing Purex brands with "famous competitors."[59] The illustration shows four Purex products and four competitive products displayed with equal prominence. The copy gives facts on prices, ingredients, strength, and performance; these facts seem to support Purex's claim that Purex offers either better products or lower prices. There appears to be no disparagement of the competition. This factual sort of comparative advertising seems far removed from the "cute" comparisons of some liquor ads or the meaningless and even fatuous comparison of an aspirin bottle with an electronic flash.[60]

In like manner, Keep Safe tells factually how its alarm system is superior to Rollins and Westinghouse alarm systems.[61] Duracell says its batteries cost less per hour than competitive batteries, including Eveready and Ray-O-Vac.[62] Scripto claims that its pens write longer and cost less than the Bic Banana and Write Bros. pens.[63] Toshiba gives advantages (faster, quieter, smaller, lighter) of its calculator over Olivetti.[64] And ever aggressive Avis continues to use facts to support its claims of superiority over Hertz.[65]

Can comparative advertising give useful information to enable consumers to make more intelligent choices among brands? Yes. Can comparative advertising confuse and mislead consumers? Yes. Like any other advertising technique, comparative advertising is as good or as bad as the manner in which it is used. At the moment, its quality depends solely upon its creator. A need for guidance is apparent. One may hope for internal guidence; e.g., the National Advertising Review Board. Failing this, the Federal Trade Commission may feel that the weight of law is indicated.

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NUTRITIONAL LABELLING: DO CONSUMERS READ IT?
AN EDMONTON PILOT STUDY

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Introduction

Nutritional labelling is one facet of a trend toward a greater quantity and diversity of product labelling requirements in North America. These requirements also include unit pricing, open dating, and ingredient labelling. Except for ingredient labelling (for which the requirements are laid out in the Food and Drug Act), Canada has included requirements for product labels only on a few products and then only on a voluntary basis. However, legislative changes are possible. Regulations in regard to unit pricing and ingredient labelling are relatively simple to administer; open dating is only slightly more so, because it requires an assessment by the processor of the expected shelf-life of the product. Because of the complexity of nutritional labelling, it remains a moot point as to whether or not regulations on these matters will be introduced.

Nutritional labelling is complex both in terms of the objectives and the method utilized in the presentation of information. The objectives which have been suggested by proponents of nutritional labelling are:

1) to help consumers plan and select balanced diets,
2) to help consumers select the best nutritional value at the point of purchase, or to get the most for the food dollar,
3) to stimulate consumer education,
4) to encourage the production of more nutritious foods,
5) to improve consumer confidence in the food industry, and
6) to satisfy the consumers' "right to know."

The method of presentation must, if the information is to be useful for consumers, be factual, complete, and yet in terms the consumer can understand. Information which has been suggested for inclusion on the label includes caloric value, mineral elements, vitamin content, and fat level and composition. A problem immediately arises in that to the average consumer without a background in nutritional education the numbers and units have little meaning. Consider also the different formats which could be used depending on whether one were primarily interested in achieving objective 1 or objective 4. A reference system would have to be established to tell the consumer the adequacy of a given amount of a given nutrient.

The cost of implementation of any type of program will be in proportion to the extent and complexity of the information; i.e., listing the numerical amounts of each nutrient in a standard serving of a product will be more costly than using general adjectives to describe the nutritive value of a standard service. In addition to the extra costs incurred in designing and printing the labels, increased costs will be incurred by the processor's monitoring programs which must be set up to ensure that the amount of the nutrient declared on the label is actually the amount in the food.

This brings us to the major point of this paper: Precisely how much consumer interest is there in nutritional labelling? The question is not whether consumers say they are interested or have a "right to know," but whether they will really use it enough to justify the cost. If consumers will not read or cannot comprehend nutritional information so as to use it for purchase/serving decisions, there would appear to be little point in providing it There is a necessity for an extensive amount of research in this area before these questions can be answered; and this paper is, of course, only a preliminary exploration into the topic. It is hoped, however, that the study will indicate partial answers to the following questions:

1) How much consumer interest in nutritional labelling is indicated by interest in the questionnaire?
2) How much consumer interest in nutritional labelling is indicated by awareness of the labels already in use, both on a qualitative and quantitative level?
3) What predictions about the use and format of nutritional labels can be made for reference in future label design?

Methodology Development

It was decided that the most suitable method of determining the level of awareness of nutritional labelling, considering the time and resources available, would be to distribute a questionnaire to a selected sample of consumers who were purchasing food supplies in local supermarkets.

Categories of products for retail sale in Edmonton which have nutritional labelling include milk (vitamins A and D), skim milk powder (vitamins A and D), canned and crystallized fruit juices (vitamin C), vegetable juices (vitamins A and D), margarine (vitamins A and D, polyunsaturated fats), cereals (thiamine, riboflavin, niacin, iron, protein, fat, carbohydrates, and calories), breads (enriched flour), and salt (iodine). It was felt that the survey would not have to include all the information on all the products to be indicative of consumer interest in nutritional labelling, so representative questions were designed for each product category.

The questions were designed in multiple choice form, modelled after the Padberg study done at Cornell University in which consumer perceptions of labels were tested. (R. J. Lenahan, et al., "Consumer Reactions to Nutrition Information on Food Product Labels," Search Agriculture, Vol. 2, No. 15.) Multiple choice questions have the advantage of being very specific and thus are subject to the least amount of misinterpretation. The effect of guessing was not considered a problem because educated guesses may result from unconscious awareness of nutritional labelling.

Since one of the objectives of the study was to determine the amount of detail perceived and retained by consumers, the questions were asked in a sequence of increasing specificity. That is, the first question dealt with the status of nutritional labelling in Canada; it was followed by questions related to qualitative claims; then there were questions dealing with quantitative claims. Socioeconomic variables (age, income, education) were asked for at the end.

Because some of the later questions could indicate answers to earlier ones, it was important that the questionnaire be filled out from first to last and that there be no looking back. The interviewer emphasized this in verbal instructions before administering the questionnaire and watched the consumer as the questionnaire was being filled out. Each series of questions was placed on a separate page to prevent reading ahead.

The questionnaire was limited to 10 questions in addition to the socio-economic variables. This was important because the questionnaire was given to shoppers in retail stores and that environment is not conducive to extensive writing.

One of the drawbacks to this survey is that consumers can only be expected to be knowledgeable about the labels on those products with which they are familiar. Thus it was important to distinguish between unknown labelling on products which were familiar (or lack of perception of labels) and unknown labelling on unfamiliar products. This was done using a deck of 3" x 5" cards, each having the name of one of the products in the survey and a corresponding number printed on it.

Before beginning the questionnaire, the consumer was handed the cards and was asked to remove any with which he/she was not familiar. "Familiar" was defined as being any product which the consumer had brought or had considered buying. The numbers were noted on the front of the questionnaire by the interviewer.

By conducting the interviews in stores, it was hoped that the shoppers contacted were those who were usually responsible for most shopping decisions. Questionnaires were discarded if the person professed to have no knowledge of nutritional labelling (but this was noted) or if the person was unfamiliar with the majority of the products.

Approximately two hundred questionnaires were given; this was a reduction from the number planned, but time was a major constraint and the study was a pilot survey.

There are certain restrictions on the questionnaire which limit its validity. It is only applicable to packaged, processed food; i.e., for someone eating fresh oranges rather than drinking Tang, the amount of vitamin C in the latter is of little interest. This also applies if Tang is drunk as a beverage but not as a source of the vitamin. This was mentioned several times by consumers and reflects one of the problems of using nutritional labelling, namely, even complete labelling on packaged foods will affect only a proportion of the diet.

Knowledge of what is written on the label is not the same as knowledge of the nutritional content. Since label declarations mention only what is added, the consumer must find out what is there naturally. This is illustrated by the label declaration of B-vitamins added to dry cereal products and the absence of such labelling on whole grain cereals such as Shredded Wheat or Sunnyboy; the vitamins are, nonetheless, present in the latter as well. From a competitive viewpoint, manufacturers might wish to have some allowance made for declaring the actual content (as a nutritional labelling scheme would allow). This study did not test the nutritional knowledge of consumers as to actual nutritive value.

Results and Discussion

The results varied widely among products. While knowledge of label claims is low for many products, some products definitely have an image of being a source of a particular nutrient. Generally, a higher proportion of the sample was aware of qualitative statements on labels as opposed to the quantitative claims on the same labels.

Vitamin C

Vitamin C is a well publicized vitamin and consumers are generally conscious that it is required in the daily diet. About 80% are aware that it is added to apple juice, but only 30% are aware that exactly the same amount is added to pineapple or V-8 juice. Approximately the same proportion knew it is added to Tang as did for apple juice; this could possibly be due to the publicity which has at times surrounded the assimilability of vitamin C in crystalline fruit juices. Equally high numbers knew that vitamin C is not added to tomato juice, it would be interesting to compare this figure with the proportion who knew that tomato is a natural source of vitamin C. Everyone questioned knew that instant coffee was not a source of vitamin C, and almost everyone knew the same of skim milk. Thus it appears that the majority of consumers have an idea of at least the more common sources of vitamin C and presumably some of this information has been learned from reading the labels.

Vitamin D

Supplements of vitamin D do not appear to be as well recognized. Only 20% of the consumers sampled were aware that it is added to corn oil margarine, 37% were aware that it is added to skim milk powder, and 25% were aware that it is added to 2% milk. Since 20% thought it was added to chocolate milk and apple juice, and 33% thought it was added to skim milk, it does not seem as if the label claims are having an effect on consumer knowledge. In several instances consumers did not know whether they were drinking skim or 2% milk, so inasmuch as 'skim' is a description of a nutritive change in the milk, even that may not be too well perceived. If the results in terms of absolute numbers are consulted, it can be seen that chocolate milk is chosen consistently less as a vitamin source than is 2% milk. This may reflect an image that 'plain' milk is good for you while chocolate milk is a treat and the two qualities are mutually exclusive. Actually, it should be as easy to fortify chocolate milk.

For the 20% who thought vitamin D was added to apple juice, there seemed to be some problem in distinguishing between the vitamins: they knew apple juice was good for something but were not sure what it was. This illustrates the generally hazy background consumers have in nutritional education. The need for vitamin D has not been emphasized to the same extent as for vitamin C and consumers are not as conscious of it. Getting this vitamin from natural sources has not been as essential because many children are given supplements extracted from fish liver oils in the winter, and in the summer it is assumed that they are exposed to enough sunshine for their bodies to metabolize sufficient amounts.

B-Complex Vitamins

The average consumer does not appear to exhibit a great deal of interest in the B-complex vitamins niacin, thiamin, and riboflavin. However, it would appear that Kellogg's has been successful in promoting the fact that they are fortifying their cereals; from 40-90% of consumers knew about the added vitamins compared to only 20% for Nabisco Shreddies. The level and variety of fortification is the same for both companies. The range for Kellogg's was due to product variation: Special K was considered a vitamin source by 90% of the consumers questioned, and it had higher ratings in every socioeconomic category (whether age, income, or education). It may be possible that the emphasis on protein in Special K advertising has improved its image in terms of all nutrients. Cornflakes was the next highest--about 65% thought that it is a fortified product. At one time ads for Cornflakes were using the slogan "fortified with iron, 3 essential vitamins, and love" in a heart on the front of the package as well as in verbal statements. "Love" is now missing from the label (presumably a legal restriction), but the nutrients are still listed within a red heart. This appears to be having a better effect than Product 19, which lists its entire quantitative nutritional claims in half-inch type on the front of the package (and only creates an awareness in 42% of the customers). Rice Krispies had the lowest rating as a nutrient source. In actual fact, the fortification levels for vitamins and iron for all Kellogg's products are exactly the same, although the protein contents vary. It does not appear that large print on the front of the package is necessarily more effective than small print on the back; the message is better perceived and retained if it can be made less impersonal. Cereal boxes were mentioned by some consumers as having an advantage over most packages in that they get on the table and many people read the fine print while they are eating. A package which goes from the cupboard to the garbage is not likely to be read.

Only a small (less than 10%) proportion of the consumers sampled believed that cooked cereals (Quaker Oats and Sunnyboy) were fortified with the B vitamins. The proportion might have been greater if the questions had been asked in a format which did not bias in favour of non-fortified products. Also, this is another area in which there must be distinction between fortification and the food as a vitamin source because of natural content. The same discussion could apply to Shredded Wheat, which is a 100% whole grain product without additives.

Iodine

The iodization of table salt does not pose a problem. Eight-five percent of consumers are aware that it is iodized. No one believed that it was not iodized; the discrepancy lies in the fact that some consumers believe it is possible to buy both. This confusion could have several sources: first, uniodized salt is available in Canada for manufacturing (but this is not the same product as table salt): second, uniodized salt is available in the U.S. and people who have travelled may not remember where they have seen it; and third, to cater to the health food market, health stores are selling 'pure' sea salt, which presumably is not iodized (but one could question the healthfulness of the latter in an area where foods are naturally iodine-deficient and goitre is endemic).

Quantity and Amount of Nutrition Supplements

The quantitative questions were relatively inadequately answered (20-30%) correct answers. The question on quantity of vitamin D per quart of milk was answered slightly better; about 40% had noticed the amount on the label. However, this makes an interesting comparison with the 26% who believed that vitamin D had been added to milk. Some of this is likely due to guessing, but some might also be due to confusion about the vitamins. Iron in Cornflakes had the greatest proportion of correct answers (60%) but it is felt that this question was biassed in favour of the correct answer because the correct answer was the smallest number on the multiple choice answers. If the raw data are studied, it can be seen that for all products and for all breakdowns of the quantitative questions, the smallest number was chosen with the highest frequency, then the middle number, and the highest number was chosen least. In comments it was elicited that, with the exception of milk, the products involved (Tang and dried cereals) were "not supposed to be very good for you" so the consumer picked the smallest nutrient amount given. This illustrates some valid points even though the answers were guesses and did not reflect knowledge. First, consumers continue to buy and consume these products even though they believe they are getting little nutritive value, i.e., purchases are not based on nutritional content. Second, even though they are consuming a product which they believe has little value, they do not check the package to see what the actual value is (because they are afraid of having their fears confirmed?). It is perhaps fortunate for North Americans' general health that the consumers' errors are low rather than high.

Demographic Factors

There were no significant trends for the age, income, or education breakdowns; although for certain products the level of awareness changed as predicted by U.S. studies regarding changes in these socioeconomic variables. In some cases the low income groups had a relatively high level of awareness and this was assumed to be due to the student population which has a relatively high level of education but is living on a restricted income.

Consumer Interest

Consumer interest in nutritional labelling as evidenced by interest in the questionnaire is quite high. No one refused to fill one out. Although the anticipated time per questionnaire was 5 minutes, many consumers wanted to talk about it and the average time stretched to 15-20 minutes. The most common questions were: "What are the right answers? How many people knew the right answers? What do you (the interviewer) think might happen to nutritional labelling?" Many people apologized for not knowing the answers when they felt they should. Several consumers said that they were going to check their labels when they got home now that their interest had been aroused.

A few mentioned that we should have more labelling, but they did not necessarily read present labelling more than anyone else. Some stated that nutritional labelling should be provided by the manufacturers so that the consumer could consult it should she so desire even though this might be only once every 6 months. In this case, however, it would appear that not many were willing to pay for it because "food prices were high enough already."

There were some complaints about the lack of a frame of reference for labelling which was already present. Consumers pointed out that they did not know what an international unit (IU) was nor did they have any way of telling what proportion of the daily requirement 6 gm. of protein provided.

Conclusions & Recommendations

The lowest levels of perception of label claims in this study are about the same as those found in the Cornell study, that is, about 25% of the consumers sampled were aware of vitamin D fortification in various products. From there the level of awareness improves to a high of 90% for vitamin B in Special K and 85% for vitamin C in apple juice. Thus it appears that consumers can reach moderate to high levels of awareness of qualitative nutritional claims if these claims are promoted; merely printing the information without drawing attention to it will not suffice. However, this knowledge does not mean that the consumer is using the information for product differentiation, purchase decisions, or meal planning. Presumably one would expect that the number of consumers who employ the labels for any of the possible uses would be lower than the number who merely notice them.

Quantitative information is not as well retained; the main objection to numerical data is that the average consumer has no frame of reference to use in interpretation of the numbers. Therefore, if a program of meaningful nutritional information is to be implemented, it should incorporate criteria for standards. Quite possibly, however, the average consumer is not interested in this much detail and would be equally satisfied with adjectival descriptions, i.e., if a consumer learned several good sources of the essential nutrients, she could plan the diet around them. They would ensure that the bulk of the requirements were met, and when a diet is composed of foods from many areas there is usually no problem with low levels of nutrient requirements. Thus we would question the need of the masses for quantitative information without doing further research.

If the primary motive of nutritional labelling is quality improvement in the food industry, then extensive labelling may be the wrong way to go about it. Since the consumer image of the nutritional advantages of dry cereals is worse than they really are and the information is available to all, labelling obviously is not telling the consumer anything--nor would the consumer likely be aware if Kellogg's suddenly changed a nutrient level. Since it is doubtful that label claims are making any of the dry cereal manufacturers reconsider the proportions of added nutrients in cereals, the effect of the label claims is negligible.

However, there does appear to be a good deal of consumer interest when nutritional information is presented in an interesting manner. Educational and promotional efforts, in simple terms and on a personal level, could be well accepted. Thus firms who are pursuing voluntary labelling should, if they want their efforts to be recognized by consumers, incorporate the information into their regular marketing campaigns. And the government, when planning to implement labelling requirements, should consider the effort required in addition to labelling for the program to be effective.

Perhaps an alternative to detailed labelling might be to have consumer consultants in the supermarkets on a rotating basis. One way in which the consultants could be distributed is in terms of geographic area and population, so that each one served a number of stores. There are several possibilities for sponsorship--manufacturers and/or retailers could do it on a cooperative basis, or the consultants could be civil servants. While there would be some complex administration involved in developing the program, the system, once established, would not necessarily be more expensive than the extensive monitoring program required to accompany specific detailed label claims. Ideally, the consultants would have a professional background in nutrition, food processing, marketing, and the legal framework in which these occur--so that they could field questions and complaints in areas other than nutritional labelling. In addition to providing information to consumers, they could also quickly transmit feedback to the industry.

In summary, we would like to suggest that all levels of the food industry continue to consider the demand for nutritional information, but that they bear in mind that the consumer is not interested in nutrition to the exclusion of all else and that costs should be controlled accordingly. Thus, careful thought and research should be given to any program before it is implemented. Without an educational background, detailed information is next to useless, and promoting basic nutrition education may well satisfy the interest of the majority of consumers. Those with requirements for specific information are a different problem and can probably best be dealt with through means other than approaching the masses.

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TRUTH IN RETAIL NEWSPAPER ADVERTISING

by
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The back cover of the "Advertising Acceptability Standards" booklet of the News-Journal Company, of Wilmington, states "...whether it's News or Advertising, you can believe it when it's in The News-Journal Papers." To check the validity of this claim 17 M.B.A. students directed by Dr. James R. Krum, Associate Professor of Business Administration, University of Delaware, investigated 232 display advertisements run in six issues of the Wilmington Evening Journal during April, 1972. The "Retail Advertising Copy Standards" of the Better Business Bureau of Delaware, Inc., were used by the investigators to determine whether ads were false, misleading, or deceptive. This report presents key findings of the investigation.

The Study

The study was limited to display advertisements by retail firms doing business in Northern Delaware during April, 1972. Eliminated from the study were advertisements to the business community, national advertisements with no mention of a local retailer, and classified advertisements. To cover the full span of a week's advertising while allowing time for investigations, the study was conducted during alternate days of a two-week period starting with the issue of Tuesday, April 11, 1972, and ending with the issue of Friday, April 21, 1972. During this period 432 ads qualified for inclusion in the study. Of this number 258 ads were candidates for investigation of the possibility that Better Business Bureau Copy Standards were being violated. The remaining 174 ads were judged as being "not questionable." Typical advertisements in the "not questionable" category included an announcement by a florist of his place of business and an ad by a men's store for Palm Beach Tropical Suits at the regular price. Of the 258 candidates for investigation, 26 ads were not capable of being investigated without purchasing the product or service, e.g. a firm that offers to waterproof basements. Thus, a total of 200 of the 432 ads were not investigated. Ninety-six percent of this group of ads were one-quarter page or less in size. Approximately half of the 232 ads selected for investigation were half page ads or larger. These ads appeared in the following issues:

Date	Number of ads investigated
Tuesday, April 11, 1972	34
Thursday, April 13, 1972	63
Saturday, April 15, 1972	13
Monday, April 17, 1972	29
Wednesday, April 19, 1972	51
Friday, April 21, 1972	42
	232

The business firms running these 232 ads were visited by an M.B.A. student either on the day the ad was run or the following day to check compliance with B.B.B. Copy Standards.

Retail Advertising Copy Standards

The Better Business Bureau of Delaware, Inc., was established in December, 1966. One of its stated objectives is to promote truth in advertising. To this end "Retail Advertising Copy Standards were published November 1, 1966 as a service to advertisers and advertising media. The Introduction (page 1) states:

> These Retail Advertising Copy Standards are issued as a compendium of major general principles and standards to apply to the retail offering of all goods and services in the state of Delaware. For the purpose of these standards, retail advertising is deemed to include all offers for the direct provisions of goods or services to the public by the advertiser, whether appearing in mass media, direct mail window displays, counter cards, tags or other forms of advertising promotion. They include: (1) those copy acceptance standards of Delaware media which have been commonly applied by all Delaware newspapers, (2) provisions based on various guides for advertising issued by the Federal Trade Commission regarding unfair or deceptive practices, (3) basic recommendations of the Better Business Bureau are generally applicable to all classifications of retail advertising found in "A Guide to Retail Advertising and Selling" issued by the Association of Better Business Bureaus International and "Do's and Don'ts of Advertising Copy" issued by the National Better Business Bureau and (4) principles established by state or local laws and authorities.
>
> The following standards therefore represent the basic minimum provisions that should be observed by all advertisers in the preparation of advertising copy. They will also provide an important guide for Delaware advertising media in formulating their individual decisions as to copy acceptability.

Five pages of the B.B.B. booklet detail the standards under 17 different headings. Fourteen of the 17 categories of standards were applicable to the objectives of this study. Titles or brief descriptions of these follow:

1. Accuracy of descriptions
2. Accuracy of illustrations
3. Layout--possibility of misunderstandings
4. Competitive claim
5. Use of "save" or "savings"
6. Comparative price statements
    A. Based on reductions from advertiser's own price
    B. Based on price of identical merchandise
    C. Based on price of comparable merchandise
7. Use of the following terms
    A. "clearance sale," "inventory reduction"
    B. "sale"
    C. "special purchase," "manufacturer's close-out," etc.

8. Time limit on sales
9. Use of "imperfects," "irregulars," "seconds"
10. "bait" advertising
11. Factory on wholesale prices: "buy from the manufacturers," etc.
12. Trade-in allowance
16. Use of "free"
17. Distress and special sales

All advertisements selected for investigation were covered by one or more of these standards.

Availability of Merchandise at Advertised Price

Practically all (94 percent) of the 232 ads selected for investigation used a price appeal of some sort. More than half of the ads used the words "sale" or "save" or some combination of the two. In a majority of the ads comparative price statements were made--the most frequent claim was for a reduction from the retailer's previous selling price. Thus the first task of the investigation was to determine whether the merchandise was available at the advertised price. The merchandise or service offered in only nine ads (four percent of those investigated) was not available when the store was visited. In four of these cases the merchandise had sold out prior to the investigation though the ad had not specified that limited quantities were available. In one case the advertised merchandise had not arrived.

In fifteen percent of the 232 investigations the advertised prices were not clearly marked. However, the merchandise or service could be purchased at the advertised price in all but one investigation--a clear case of "bait" and "switch" using an inaccurate illustration to be discussed later.

Substantiation of Advertising Claims

While it was generally possible to determine availability at the advertised price by observation or through discussion with a sales clerk, it was necessary in 103 investigations (44 percent of the total) to ask for documentation of statements or features of the advertisement; frequently a department manager, store manager or owner was questioned for this information. Most ads demanding documentation involved price reductions. The B.B.B. Copy Standards (page 4) specify that price statements based on reductions from the advertiser's own price should be made only when "the item was offered (and sold) to the public by the retailer for a reasonably substantial period of time." Thus previous sales slips or records were requested as documentation. Where price comparisons are based on identical or comparable merchandise offered by other retailers "such comparisons shall be substantiated by shoppings made by the advertiser." (page 5) Two-thirds, 69 of the 103 ads questioned, were substantiated to the satisfaction of the investigator by sales slips or other records. Of the remaining third, two merchants refused to document claims and 32 were not able to document claims. In some instances involving chain stores, ads were not prepared locally and thus documentation was not available. For this and other reasons the investigator felt the need for more information in 14 of the 34 cases where adequate documentation was not given. Only seven of the 14 were classified as violations of B.B.B. Copy Standards, however, since the investigators made judgments on the basis of the information available to them as to whether they believed the standards had been violated.

Violations of B.B.B. Copy Standards

Twenty-six advertisements, approximately one out of every nine investigated and one out of every 17 ads in the study, was found to be clearly in violation of one or more of the Retail Copy Standards of the Better Business Bureau. These 26 ads were run by 21 different merchants with three advertisements of one firm found in violation of the standards and two ads of three other firms found to be in violation. Eleven of the 21 firms were members of the B.B.B. at the time of the study. All but one, an art "liquidation" firm from out-of-state doing business at a motel, had permanent places of business in New Castle County, Delaware, at the time of the study. The principal businesses of the 21 firms can be classified in the following way:

Appliances and/or home electronic equipment	5
Carpet	4
Furniture	3
General Merchandise	2
Other	7
Total	21

It is noteworthy that 19 ads were investigated for food stores and no violations were found. The same was true for a number of national and local chains using a discount or savings appeal in their advertising.

Size of the ads violating the standards ranged from two advertising supplements and one double page ad to nine ads that were less than a quarter page. The 26 ads contained 49 violations of the B.B.B. standards; violations per ad varied from one to five:

Violations Per Advertisement	Number
1	14
2	7
3	1
4	1
5	3
Total	26

The violations fell into 14 different categories:

Type of Violation	Number
Accuracy of descriptions	4
Accuracy of illustrations	5
Layout	3
Competitive claim	4
Use of "save" or "savings"	4
Comparative price statements:	
Based on reduction from advertiser's own price	10
Based on price of identical merchandise	3
Use of following terms:	
"clearance sale," "inventory reduction"	1
"sale"	4
"special purchase," "manufacturer's closeout"	1

Time limit on sales	4
"imperfects," "irregulars," "seconds"	2
"bait" advertising	3
Distress and special sales	1
Total	49

The 26 advertisements that violated B.B.B. Copy Standards are illustrated and discussed in the Appendix at the end of the report.

Complaints to Better Business Bureau

Customer Experience Records forms were filed with the Better Business Bureau of Delaware lodging formal complaints against 13 of the advertisers found to be in violation of B.B.B. Copy Standards (actually 14 complaints were filed with two of them being against one retailer). The B.B.B. in turn sent a copy of the complaint to each of the retailers. On September 7, 1972, four months after the complaints had been filed, Mr. John E. Babiarz, President of the B.B.B. of Delaware, reported the following disposition of the complaints.

- Four firms acknowledged the complaint and said they will try to prevent future recurrance of the situation that led to the complaint.
- One firm indicated that its guarantee of prices as "lower than anybody else's in town" is backed by a 30-day price protection policy issued to all customers.
- Two firms reported that their advertising is not prepared locally but that complaints were forwarded to the home office. In both cases the home office failed to respond.
- One firm argued that its advertising is vital to the way it does business.
- One firm replied that it will check into the complaint but never followed through.
- Four firms failed to respond to the B.B.B. complaint.

In summary, five of the thirteen firms (the first two categories listed above) explained the basis of their advertising or indicated they will try to prevent a recurrence of the situation that led to the complaint. The remaining eight firms, seven of which are B.B.B. members, failed to comply with the following statement from the B.B.B. Copy Standards.

> Advertisers should not only see that copy is prepared in accordance with the Standards but should be prepared to provide acceptable substantiation for any claims or offers made in advertising, if requested to do so by advertising media or the Better Business Bureau.

Conclusion

The study revealed relatively few violations of Better Business Bureau Copy Standards. Of the violations found, some involved errors and did not seem to be an attempt to mislead the public. However, several firms studied appear to have ignored B.B.B. Copy Standards and a small number of Wilmington area retailers may be using false, misleading, or deceptive advertising as a normal business practice. While providing a service to the community by publishing the "Retail Advertising Copy Standards" and investigating complaints, the Better Business Bureau lacks power to stop advertising that violates its standards. That power rests with The News-Journal Company, of Wilmington, which makes the following statement in its "Advertising Acceptability Standards" (page 5):

> In the interest of the reader who is the mutual customer of The News-Journal Company and the advertiser, these newspapers make every effort to exclude misleading, inaccurate, unethical, and fraudulent advertisements, as well as advertisements containing objectionable and unfair references to competitors. The News-Journal Company reserves the right to edit, revise, or reject any advertising copy.

THE DYSFUNCTIONAL CONSEQUENCES OF CLIENT CENTERED ADVERTISING

by

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Only very seldom can clients of advertising agents who become stage struck be persuaded to leave broadcast commercial work to the real professionals. Often the attitude is, "I'm paying the bills...why shouldn't I appear in my company's commercials if I wish?" In cases such as this, the advertising agency or the account executive can say little without antagonizing the client and causing the client to look for an agency who will be inclined to let him star in his own commercials.

It is not easy for an account executive to tell a client that he (the client) lacks the talent, personal presence, or other characteristics in order to make a good impression in television commercials. Further, it is not easy for the client to believe such a statement, even when told.

The decision by the client to star in his own commercials is often so emotionally charged that no amount of reasoning can cause the client to change his mind. The decision, itself, usually is related to an emotional need. Since the ego is so easily bruised, agencies are in a precarious position.

Reasons for client participation

What are the reasons which prompt a client to suddenly want to star in his own television commercials? One reason is directly related to politics and public office. One client confessed to his agency that he was contemplating entering a political campaign for state office in the near future, and felt he should use his state-wide promotional program related to his company to give him as much advance publicity as possible.

In another case, a client confessed that he simply wanted to see himself on television.

In addition, one client wanted his daughter to star in the commercial (which she, in fact, did) because he hoped she would be nominated as queen of the approaching local charity ball. She needed publicity, in short.

In such situations, the account executive has little choice but to comply or find himself a new client.

An isolated metropolitan study

In this particular study, the authors attempted to analyze the image of local businessmen doing their own talent work in the Bexar County SMSA in Texas.

The setting was probably much like other metropolitan areas in the use of "client-talent" advertising. The use of client family members, pets, etc., is popular to varying degrees in many metropolitan areas.

The study has three main purposes:

1. To determine, in general, consumer attitudes toward client centered advertising,
2. To determine whether consumer attitudes can be significantly categorized by sex; and
3. To determine ratings, in six different cases, of performance by the businessmen-clients on factors related to sincerity, trustworthiness, general image, and selling appeal.

Methodology

A survey instrument was designed and utilized to interview two hundred respondents in a three-county area, which constitutes the Bexar County SMSA. Television stations located in this area have prime coverage in the three-county area studied.

Since the commercials involved were aired during day and night viewing hours, respondents were interviewed by telephone during both parts of the day on a rotating basis.

The specific commercials studied were those developed for (and starring the client):

1. A local land developer
2. A discount furniture dealer
3. A brake-repair dealer
4. A Rambler dealer
5. An automobile dealer (Ford)
6. A Dodge automobile dealer.

In all cases, the client businessmen had identified themselves, in the commercials, as being the owner of the company being advertised. As a result, it was assumed that recognition of each client was fairly wide-spread.

Findings

Respondents indicated that in slightly fewer than 25% of the interviews, the general opinion of commercials done by businessmen is "generally well done."

TABLE I

Opinion of Commercials by Businessmen

Response	Relative Frequency
Generally well done	24.5%
Some Good--Some Bad	47.5
Generally Poor	26.5
No Opinion	1.5

Remarks given by the respondents related to the inability of the businessman to speak well on television, the nasal twang of the businessman, and the "silly kid" in the commercial (a daughter of one client). Even many of those who responded "generally well done" had negative comments.

Of the 99 females and 101 males interviewed, the responses were somewhat different, as shown in Table II.

TABLE II

Opinion of Commercials/Sex of Respondent

Response	Relative Frequency by Sex	
	Female	Male
Generally well done	55.1%	44.9%
Some Good--Some Bad	47.4	52.6
Generally Poor	50.9	49.1
No Opinion	0.0	100.0

Of those who believe that the commercials done by businessmen are generally well done, a larger portion were women. This may indicate that females are generally more compassionate toward advertisers or that males are inclined to be more critical of the behavior of people in business. It is interesting to note that the persons of "no opinion" (3) were all men.

TABLE III

Factor Responses Toward Businessmen

Businessman	Factor*			
	Sincerity	Trustworthy	Favorable Image	"Would Buy"
Furniture Dealer (Dis)	39%	33.5%	30.5%	27%
Ford Dealer	50	48	49.5	36
Brake Repair Dealer	63	58.5	60.5	55
Dodge Dealer	24	23	26.5	22
Land Developer	26.5	24.5	26.5	21
Rambler Dealer	31.5	29.5	28	25

*Each factor was treated in a separate question. As a result, in no direction are the totals assumed to equal 100%.

As shown in Table III, Businessmen received favorable responses concerning sincerity ranging from 24% to 63%, concerning trustworthiness, from 23% to 58.5%; concerning a favorable image, from 25.5% to 60.5%, and those who said they "would buy" from the businessman ranged from 21% to 55%.

Lest low rankings in Table III be attributed to lack of recognition, the responses on recognition are revealed in Table IV.

TABLE IV

Recognition of Businessmen

Businessman	Frequency of Recognition
Discount Furniture Dealer	62.0%
Ford Dealer	84.5
Brake Repair Dealer	80.5
Dodge Dealer	40.0
Land Developer	95.0
Rambler Dealer	49.0

Very quick comparison of the data in Tables III and IV reveals that, for example, the land developer had the greatest recognition yet very low ranking on the factors studied. The brake repair dealer was third in recognition but ranked very high on the factors being studied. Some of this high ranking is due, it is believed, to the "Pat Boone" image of the individual in the brake repair situation.

Generally speaking, it appears that the success of any one personality in being ranked high on the factors has to do with the personal appearance and manner of speaking of that person. Far too often, businessmen can present themselves well in the office, yet lack the professional manner required to be used as talent in their own commercials.

Implications

Just as no effective method has yet been devised to correctly associate the ability of the ad to attract viewers with the real selling power of the ad...no effective method has been devised to connect the "favorable acceptance" of the viewing public with the selling power of the businessman starring in his own commercial.

As a result, it cannot be said that client centered advertisements are necessarily a bad investment. That is, they may sell. However, they do not always appear to do what the businessmen-clients have in mind and that is ego building or image building of the individual businessman.

In fact, such a campaign can actually backfire and cause the client to become the laughing stock of the local viewing audience. In some cases, it can almost be predicted.

It appears, on the basis of the data gathered in this study, that far too often, businessmen become objects of mockery when they try to become stars on television. They generally lack the professional training and speaking voice to present themselves well. It is possible that such campaigns could actually cause a sales decline for the businessman.

The respondents in this study gave such firm statements about client centered advertising that, at this time, they seem to have a negative effect ranging from mild negative to strong negative for the general image of the client in question.

SOME CONSEQUENCES OF PERSONALIZING MAIL SURVEYS

by
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The economies associated with the mail questionnaire have popularized it as a technique of survey research. However, certain problems which limit its overall effectiveness have been encountered. Three critical problems are:

1. Nonresponse--failure of a significant portion of the sample to return a completed questionnaire;
2. Item omission--nonresponse to a specific item on a returned questionnaire;
3. Response slowness--the significant time lag between the mailing of the questionnaire to the respondent and the return of the survey form to the researcher.

Efforts to minimize the severity of these problems have resulted in methodological inquires covering a wide range of variables. Most studies have tested the effectiveness of certain variables in minimizing the subject non-response problem. (1,4,5,6,7) A fewer number have extended the analysis to test the effectiveness of similar variables in minimizing item omission and response slowness. (2,3)

Personalization

Many attempts to improve patterns of response to mail questionnaires involve personalizing the communication between researcher and subject. Various methods of presenting the mail survey package in personalized form exist, but the underlying rationale is essentially the same for all of them. The principle is that, through personalization, the respondent feels his answers are unique and singularly important. Therefore, he is believed to be more likely to complete and return the questionnaire. (1)

According to recent research, personalization may act as a depressant to subject response when dealing with a certain type of population. A respondent might feel that he has drawn individual attention and by responding he will be subject to some subsequent, undesired contact. (i.e., insurance salesmen, investment counselors, door-to-door products, etc.) Personalization through the removal of individual anonymity would, in this instance, produce the opposite of the desired effect.

In a study of New York State Lottery winners, Andreasen (1) tested the principle of personalization. After publicity from the news media, lottery winners are subject to personal selling efforts from various kinds of salesmen to the point of harrassment. In receiving a personalized mail questionnaire consumers may feel they have again been singled out as sales targets and any response would subject them to even further annoying attention. An impersonal approach, emphasizing anonymity, could reduce this concern by the respondent and, therefore, increase his likelihood of response to the survey. Comparisons of response rates between lottery winners receiving personalized and non-personalized surveys supported this contention.

Subjects similar to the lottery winners are not uncommon in marketing research. Households which have made recent purchases of major durable items are often the subjects of research studies interested in pre- and postpurchase behavioral patterns. However, these same households often become the targets of sales efforts from firms who market complementary goods. Therefore, any attempt to research these individuals through the mail might be confounded if the respondents felt they were receiving individual attention. In such a situation a non-personalized approach to consumers would seem more likely to elicit a better response pattern.

Problem Definition and Research Design

A population that is often a source of behavioral data, as well as a target of sales promotion, is the new-car buyer. Recent buyers of new autos represent a rich source of behavioral data because of the importance of the purchase. These buyers are postpurchase targets of sales efforts due to the variety of complementary goods related to the automobile (e.g., seat covers, child seats, tape decks, etc.). Therefore, in researching new-car buyers by mail a personalized approach would more likely have a negative rather than positive effect on response.

This paper reports a study designed to examine the effect on response of a personalized approach to a mail survey of new-car buyers. It extends the analysis, however, by considering the interaction of a personalized approach with the inclusion of a nonmonetary incentive. It further examines the effects on these variables of item omission and response slowness.

The sample for the study was composed of the first 400 new-car buyers beginning January 1, 1971 in Scott County, Iowa. The sample was randomly broken down into four equal groups of 100 subjects. Each group received one of the following types of survey packages, each including a questionnaire concerned with the sources of information used by the respondent in purchasing his new car:

1. Personalized with a medium-priced ball point pen included as an incentive;
2. Personalized without the incentive included;
3. Nonpersonalized with the incentive included;
4. Nonpersonalized without the incentive included.

Personalized vs. Nonpersonalized Forms

Subjects in the personalized cells of the study received questionnaires with their name and address affixed to the top of the first page. All references to anonymity and efforts to maintain respondent non-identification were omitted from the cover letter. The desired effect was that the respondent gained the impression that he was receiving individual attention and his responses were singularly important.

Subjects in the nonpersonalized cells received cover letters and questionnaires emphasizing respondent anonymity. No personal reference to the respondent was included in either the cover letter or questionnaire. A statement emphasizing confidentiality was included in both the cover letter and the questionnaire.

The only other variation in respondent groups concerned the inclusion of a ball point pen as an incentive. In the cover letter of those receiving the pen, a statement referring to the pen as an expression of appreciation for the respondent's participation was included in a postscript. Otherwise all subjects received identical questionnaires and a stamped, addressed envelope for returning the completed questionnaires.

Results

Nonresponse

Table I shows the response rates from each group up to the first month after the mailing. It is clear that both the inclusion of an incentive and personalization have significant effects on response rates, but in opposite directions. Those respondents receiving the incentive responded in better fashion (51%) than those not receiving it (32.5%), while those respondents approached in a personalized fashion responded to a significantly lesser extent (34%) than those approached in a nonpersonalized fashion (49.5%).

TABLE I

Percent of Respondents Returning Questionnaire

	Non-personalized	Personalized	Means
Incentive Excluded	34.0	31.0	32.5
Incentive Included	65.0	37.0	51.0
Means	49.5	34.0	

In considering the interaction effects, we see perhaps the most revealing aspect of the analysis. For those respondents receiving no incentive the response rate obtained in the personalized approach is only slightly lower than that obtained in the nonpersonalized approach. However, for those subjects receiving the incentive, the negative effect of personalization almost entirely wipes out the positive benefits obtained from the inclusion of the incentive.

Item Omission

The extent to which item omission occurred was measured by the percentage of returned questionnaires that contined no unanswered questions. Any questionnaire containing at least one unanswered question was considered an incomplete questionnaire. (Completely blank questionnaires were treated as nonresponses.) Percentages of returned questionnaires with no omissions are summarized for each group in Table II.

TABLE II

Percent of Questionnaires with No Unanswered Questions

	Non-personalized	Personalized	Means
Incentive Excluded	85.4	67.6	76.9
Incentive Included	75.4	67.6	72.5
Means	78.8	67.6	

Differences in the groups with respect to item omission are not as marked as in the analysis of nonresponse. Inclusinn of an incentive did not improve the percentage of complete questionnaires. In fact, those respondents receiving motivational stimuli showed a slightly lower percentage rate of completed questionnaires. Personalization, however, hindered the number of complete survey forms.

Response Slowness

A central issue with regard to response slowness deals with followup efforts to elicit replies from nonrespondents: more specifically, the more rapid the overall response to the initial mailing, the less extensive will be the need for a followup effort. In this study the slowness of each group's response was measured by the percentage of returned questionnaires received at four one-week intervals following the initial mailing. These results are presented in Table III.

TABLE III

Cumulative Response Percentages at Four One-Week Intervals

	Non-personalized		Personalized	
	Incentive Excluded	Incentive Included	Incentive Excluded	Incentive Included
One Week	50.0	61.5	45.2	70.3
Two Weeks	88.2	80.0	71.0	86.5
Three Weeks	94.1	89.2	83.9	91.9
Four Weeks	97.1	93.8	93.5	94.6

Personalization appears to have a significant negative effect only when an incentive is not included. A greater percentage of ultimate responses was returned from the nonpersonalized subjects at each of the first three time intervals (week 1, week 2, week 3) than from those approached in a personalized manner during the same periods. When an incentive is included, however, the negative effect of personalization disappears.

The use of an incentive enhanced response rapidity after one week regardless of the approach. During week 2, however, the inclusion of the incentive resulted in a more favorable response pattern only in the personalized group.

Summary and Conclusions

This paper has reported a study that analyzed the effects of two factors on response patterns in a mail survey of a specific type of population. (In this study, automobile buyers). The population was composed of individuals whose activities and decisions were valuable sources of consumer behavior information, as well as potential targets for sales agents.

In the study, major concern was focused upon the effect of a personalized approach to the mail survey. The main hypothesis was that personalization would have a negative effect on response patterns because the type of subjects investigated might feel that they were drawing individual attention and that their response would be subject to subsequent contact from a sales agent. The effect of the inclusion of motivational stimuli (in this study, ball point pens) was also tested.

The results generally supported the hypothesis concerning the effect of personalization. The incidence of nonresponse on the part of subjects approached in a personalized manner was significantly higher than that of subjects receiving an impersonal survey. Similarly, the percentage of completed questionnaires was higher for subjects approached in an impersonal fashion. Subjects receiving an incentive also responded to a greater extent than those persons receiving no incentive. No significant differences were observed, however, with respect to item omission.

Mixed study results for response slowness make it difficult to draw any meaningful conclusions regarding the effect of personalization. In any event, the inclusion of an incentive does seem to improve the rapidity of response in the first few days after the mailing.

It is not startling to learn that incentive improves response patterns in a mail survey. This study provides further evidence that, if cost considerations allow it, motivational stimuli will enhance the probability of a speedy questionnaire return. A revealing conclusion is that personalization should be avoided when investigating any population of the type studied here. Personalization will hinder rather than enhance the probability of a complete response from both the total sample and the individual respondent.

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A STUDY OF READABILITY LEVELS FOR EDITORIAL AND ADVERTISING MATERIAL IN SIX SELECTED MAGAZINES

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The primary advantage of magazines as an advertising medium is their appeal to selective audiences. As this selectivity is due to the orientation of the editorial content, it follows that the advertising contained would be directed to the interests of the readers. One would also expect that the readability levels of the advertisements would be consistent with that of the editorial content. To test the above statement, the null hypothesis was used. Stated simply, this hypothesis was: there is no significant difference between the mean readability level of the advertising in the magazines tested and that of the editorial matter.

To explore the above stated question, this narrowly defined study was conducted in 1971. It examined the readability levels of both advertising and editorial matter appearing in the same issues of six selected magazines. The aim was to examine only the presence or absence of elements that are indicators of clear writing, hence, its readability, with no regard to what was said or how it was said.

The six magazines selected for study were those read on a regular basis by students at Texas Tech University, Playboy, Sports Illustrated, Seventeen, McCalls, Life and Reader's Digest. Three issues of each of the above magazines were selected, eighteen in all, and then six samples of advertising and six of editorial material were randomly selected from each of the eighteen issues.

The device chosen for measuring readability levels was Robert Gunning's "Fog Index." A number of other methods could have been employed such as the Dale-Chall or Flesch formulas but as the Fog Index is the easiest and fastest to apply, it was thought that this would be the method preferred by advertising practitioners wishing to test the readability level of their writing. The Fog Index was made more useful by linking it to the school grade levels of reading difficulty using the McCall-Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading.

In selecting editorial and advertising samples from the magazines, the following guidelines were used:

1. Select from each magazine six 100-word passages (± 10 words) of editorial material at random. The random selection was accomplished by using a table of random numbers to correspond with the number of pages in each magazine. If any number was used to choose another page.
2. The Fog Index was applied to each of the samples of editorial material.

3. Select from each of the same magazines six 100-word advertisements (± 10 words) at random again using a table of random numbers. If any number chosen at random does not produce a page with an advertisement, the following number in the table was used to choose another page. If any number chosen at random produced a page with more than one advertisement, the largest advertisement was used.

4. The Fog Index was applied to each of the selected advertisements.

In using the Fog Index these rules were used. They are simply a restatement of those rules established by Robert Gunning, the developer of the Fog Index.

1. For editorial material, begin the 100-word count with the first full paragraph on the page chosen.

2. In each passage of 100 words (± 10 words), count the number of complete sentences. Stop the sentence count with the one that ends nearest the 100-word total.

3. For advertisements, begin the word count with the first word of the body copy. Do not count the headline or sub-headlines. Follow the same procedure as in 2 above.

4. Divide the total number of words in the passage or in the advertisement copy by the number of sentences to give the average sentence length.

5. In each passage and in each advertisement copy count the number of words with 3 or more syllables.

   DO NOT count words as more than 3 syllables that are: (1) capitalized, (2) combinations or short, easy words, or (3) verb forms made 3 syllables by adding -ed or -es.

   DO count numbers and letters as one word and the syllables as they are pronounced. For example: $ is pronounced as "dollar" and should be counted as such.

6. Divide the number of hard-words (3 syllables or more) by the total number of words to obtain the percent of hard-words.

7. Multiply the total of average sentence length and percent hard-words by .4 to obtain the Fog Index and the grade level of the material.

Table 1, on the following page, shows the mean editorial readability level ($\bar{X}_1$) and the mean advertising readability level ($\bar{X}_2$) for each issue of the six magazines as well as for a combination of the three issues. It is interesting to note that in three of the eighteen cases, the mean readability level of the advertisements were higher than those of the editorial matter.

In a test of the differences between the means of editorial and advertising readability as shown in Table 2, eight issues show a significant difference

TABLE I

Mean Editorial and Advertising Readability

Magazine	Issue	$\bar{X}_1$	$\bar{X}_2$
Playboy	January, 1971	9.26	10.19
	February, 1971	9.40	4.99
	March, 1971	8.77	6.02
	Mean for magazine	9.14	7.06
Sports Illustrated	January, 1971	9.15	7.47
	February, 1971	9.62	5.26
	March, 1971	9.68	5.13
	Mean for magazine	9.48	5.95
Seventeen	January, 1971	8.76	5.37
	February, 1971	6.26	6.43
	March, 1971	10.43	6.83
	Mean for magazine	8.48	6.21
McCalls	January, 1971	10.55	6.39
	February, 1971	9.63	6.15
	March, 1971	9.84	6.91
	Mean for magazine	10.00	6.48
Reader's Digest	January, 1971	10.62	7.99
	February, 1971	9.52	7.56
	March, 1971	6.53	6.80
	Mean for magazine	8.89	7.45
Life	January, 1971	9.55	7.50
	February, 1971	11.14	8.45
	March, 1971	11.53	8.30
	Mean for magazine	10.74	8.08

at the .10 level. When the average readability level for each magazine, as a combination of the three issues were examined, there was quite a different indication. As seen in Table 3, all magazines show a significant difference at the .01 level. When taking the eighteen issues, the null hypothesis is rejected in eight cases but when the average readability levels are examined in combination, all six magazines show a significant difference at the .01 level: and, the null hypothesis was disproved in all six cases.

One would expect that the mean level of readability for advertisements would be lower than that of the editorial matter as the advertising must compete for the reader's attention. Shown in Table 4 are the absolute differences between the means using the standardized grade levels provided by the Fog Index

TABLE 2

Computation of Differences Between Means
Editorial - Advertising
(For Each Issue)

Magazine	Issue	Sample Variance*		Standard Error*		t Value
		Editorial	Advertising	Editorial	Advertising	
Playboy	January, 1971	4.14	2.85	1.68	2.85	.45
	February, 1971	2.24	1.89	.91	.77	3.70++
	March, 1971	2.15	2.66	.87	1.08	1.97
Sports Illustrated	January, 1971	3.38	1.37	2.74	1.11	.95
	February, 1971	3.65	1.95	1.48	.79	2.59++
	March, 1971	1.00	.40	1.96	.80	5.11+++
Seventeen	January, 1971	3.05	1.24	1.22	.49	2.54+
	February, 1971	2.18	3.26	.88	1.33	1.10
	March, 1971	4.43	1.72	1.80	.70	1.86
McCalls	January, 1971	3.81	1.51	1.55	.61	2.50+
	February, 1971	1.31	2.32	.53	.94	3.22++
	March, 1971	2.61	2.59	1.06	1.05	1.96
Reader's Digest	January, 1971	.51	1.35	.21	.55	4.53+++
	February, 1971	3.61	1.87	1.47	.76	1.18
	March, 1971	1.33	1.82	.54	.74	.29
Life	January, 1971	3.02	2.40	1.23	.97	1.31
	February, 1971	3.33	1.96	1.35	.80	1.71
	March, 1971	2.29	2.07	.93	.84	2.58++

*Sample size of 6
+Significant at the .10 level
++Significant at the .05 level
+++Significant at the .01 level

TABLE 3

Computation of Difference Between Means
Editorial - Advertising
(For Each Magazine)

Magazine	Issue	Sample Variance*		Standard Error*		t Value
		Editorial	Advertising	Editorial	Advertising	
Playboy	Jan.-Mar., 1971	.113	.944	.0274	.2289	9.76+
Sports Illustrated	Jan.-Mar., 1971	.099	.451	.0240	.1093	31.51+
Seventeen	Jan.-Mar., 1971	.720	.259	.1746	.0628	12.27+
McCalls	Jan.-Mar., 1971	.165	.134	.0400	.0325	69.01+
Reader's Digest	Jan.-Mar., 1971	.722	.207	.1751	.0502	7.91+
Life	Jan.-Mar., 1971	.359	.176	.0870	.0426	27.42+

*Sample size of 18
+Significant at the .01 level

TABLE 4

Difference Between Mean Readability Levels

Magazine	Editorial Mean	Advertising Mean	Difference Between Means
Playboy	9.14	7.06	2.08
Sports Illustrated	9.48	5.95	3.53
Seventeen	8.48	6.21	2.27
McCalls	10.00	6.48	3.52
Reader's Digest	8.89	7.45	1.44
Life	10.74	8.08	2.66

The differences range from approximately 1½ to over 3½ grade levels less for advertising readability. More interesting are the ranges shown in Table 5. In the case of Playboy and Sports Illustrated, the editorial range is about ½ grade for eighteen samples from each of the magazines while the advertising in Playboy ranges almost 5¼ grades and in Sports Illustrated, approximately 2-1/3 grades. On the other hand, editorial matter in Seventeen and Reader's Digest ranges from over tenth grade level down to sixth-seventh grade for a difference of over four grades of readability.

TABLE 5

Range Values of Readability Levels
Editorial - Advertising

Magazine	Editorial Range			Advertising Range		
	High	Low	Range	High	Low	Range
Playboy	9.40	8.77	.49	10.19	4.99	5.20
Sports Illustrated	9.68	9.15	.53	7.47	5.13	2.34
Seventeen	10.43	6.26	4.17	6.83	5.37	1.46
McCalls	10.55	9.63	.92	6.91	6.15	.76
Reader's Digest	10.62	6.53	4.09	7.99	6.80	1.19
Life	11.53	9.55	1.96	8.45	7.50	.95

What does all of this mean to people writing for magazines, editorially or persuasively?

To editors - in orienting the magazine to a specific or selective segment of the population some consideration should be given to the readability level of the contents. Table 5, indicates that certain magazines maintain a consistency from issue to issue while others exhibit greater variance between issues. If an editor was aware of the readability range of his audience then he could better edit the content to suit this variable.

To advertisers - the concept of readability levels is to more effectively match a message to an intended receiver. The copywriter should be aware of the reading level of the magazine reader and write accordingly. The evidence presented in Table 5 would indicate that in several instances, this relationship is not taken in accord. While the editorial content of both *Playboy* and *Sports Illustrated* remain fairly consistent, the advertising ranges are much broader. Table 4 shows that the difference between the means of the editorial and advertising readability ranges from 1.44 to 3.53 grade levels.

It is recommended that magazine editors exercise more control over the readability level of the editorial matter and that the advertising copywriter be made aware of such grade readability level efforts. With this information, the copywriter should seek a readability level to optimize desired advertising goals. This study certainly indicates the need for more effort on the part of editors and writers to better match readership with readability levels and to maintain consistency. Further study is recommended to ascertain whether there should be a difference in the readability levels of editorial and advertising matters. If so, what then should be the difference to optimize advertising goals?

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SUNDAY SHOPPER PSYCHOGRAPHICS AND PROMOTION POSSIBILITIES

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"Most women today, it is claimed, no longer regard shopping as a 'day on the town,' but as a household task that must be performed as expeditiously as possible, often...when the family car is available."[1] On the other hand many women and men see shopping as an excellent opportunity for family entertainment. Because of these two diverse trends, more and more retailers are opening their doors on Sunday. Not all that are open want to promote Sunday sales, but some are actively. For efficient use of promotional resources, knowledge of the Sunday shopper is essential. Little is presently available, however, in the marketing literature concerning the Sunday shopper. The purpose of this paper is to present the results of a study exploring the psychographics of Sunday shoppers. Specifically, the study examines demographic data of Sunday shoppers, the Sunday shopping trip, and the motives and attitudes of the Sunday shopper--all with the intended purpose of providing information for improving promotional strategy.

Four hundred patrons of two enclosed malls in Kalamazoo, Michigan, were interviewed. These interviews were conducted on two consecutive Sundays in each mall during the hours, 1-5 p.m. Four interviewers were assigned a specified but different location in each mall during the interview period, in an attempt to account for possible variation in special promotions, traffic flows, and time-of-interview. The interviewers were instructed to interview every Xth shopper passing their location, A being the first person to pass the interviewer at ten minute intervals.

Kalamazoo County has a population of 205,000 with retail sales in 1970 of about 375 million dollars. There are three major shopping areas in the county and several minor areas. The oldest of the major shopping areas in the county is downtown Kalamazoo. It is an open air mall with ample pay parking. Downtown Kalamazoo is not open on Sunday. There are two enclosed malls, each rivaling the downtown in terms of square feet of selling space, both being open on Sunday. There are also several major discounters which are located in the minor shopping areas which are open on Sunday.

Demographic Findings

In comparing the characteristics of the Sunday shopping with the demographic information of the trade area given in the Survey of Buying Power, the Sunday shopper appears to be quite typical of the trade area. The Kalamazoo-Portage area has a median household income of $9,184, with 82,000 households. The total net effective buying income is $1,007,365,000, total retail sales are $564,132,000, and per household retail sales are $6,880. Kalamazoo County's total retail sales are $457,955,000, with 3,319 households earning $25,000 or up.[2] The Kalamazoo market rank in relation to other U.S. markets is given in the table on the last page. As one might suspect knowing that the female of the household tends to be the household purchasing agent more women than men were found shopping on Sunday. Based on frequency of occurrence the typical Sunday shopper was also associated with the following characteristics. The head of her household was likely to be between the ages of 24 and 50 years of age. It was equally as probable that she was reared in a small or rural community as it was a large or urban community, thus the conservative or liberal environment that might be associated with her background seems to make little difference in her Sunday shopping behavior. The income of her family could be expected (approximately one chance out of three) to be in the range of $8,000-$12,000. On her Sunday shopping trip there was one chance out of two that she would be accompanied by a member of her family. The same likelihood as reported for grocery shopping in the Sixth duPont Consumer Buying Habit Study.[3] The male Sunday shopper who was either the head or came from a household headed by a person over 65 years of age was the least typical type of Sunday shopper. It may appear from common sense reasoning that the frequency of Sunday shopping and demographic data of the Sunday shopper is in some way associated. Using the data from the survey as shown in Table I and comparing it with demographic data of the interviewees, no relationship was discovered.

TABLE I

Frequency of Sunday Shopping

How Often Shop Sunday	Number of Interviewees
Less than once a month	57
Once a month	143
Twice a month	94
More than twice a month	106

The Chi Square Test was used to make the comparison and at the .05 level no significant difference was found in sex, family income, age of household head, shopping group and community size and frequency of Sunday shopping of the interviewee.

The Sunday Shopping Trip

Promoting the Sunday shopping trip has possibilities if the shoppers' psychological and behavioral patterns involved in their shopping trips are known. One dimension to consider is why the person is in the shopping center that is open on Sunday. The reasons given voluntarily by the shopper which might serve as a basis for promotion are highlighted in Table II.

The two most frequent reasons were to look around or to make a purchase. Over 80% made such a response. Common sense might easily lead to the conclusion that people are Sunday shopping because they want only to buy a product. Basing advertising copy on this commonsense conclusion and stressing products and product features in the advertisements, with 45% saying they came to look around, may be seen as misallocation of advertising effort. Certainly the statement "to look around" has more than one possible meaning, any one or all of which might be incorporated into the advertising copy and layout to enhance

TABLE II

Main Reason for Shopping Today (Sunday)

Reason	Percentage
To look around	44.7
To make a purchase	36.8
To see a special promotion	7.3
To dine out	7.0
To visit a particular store	4.2

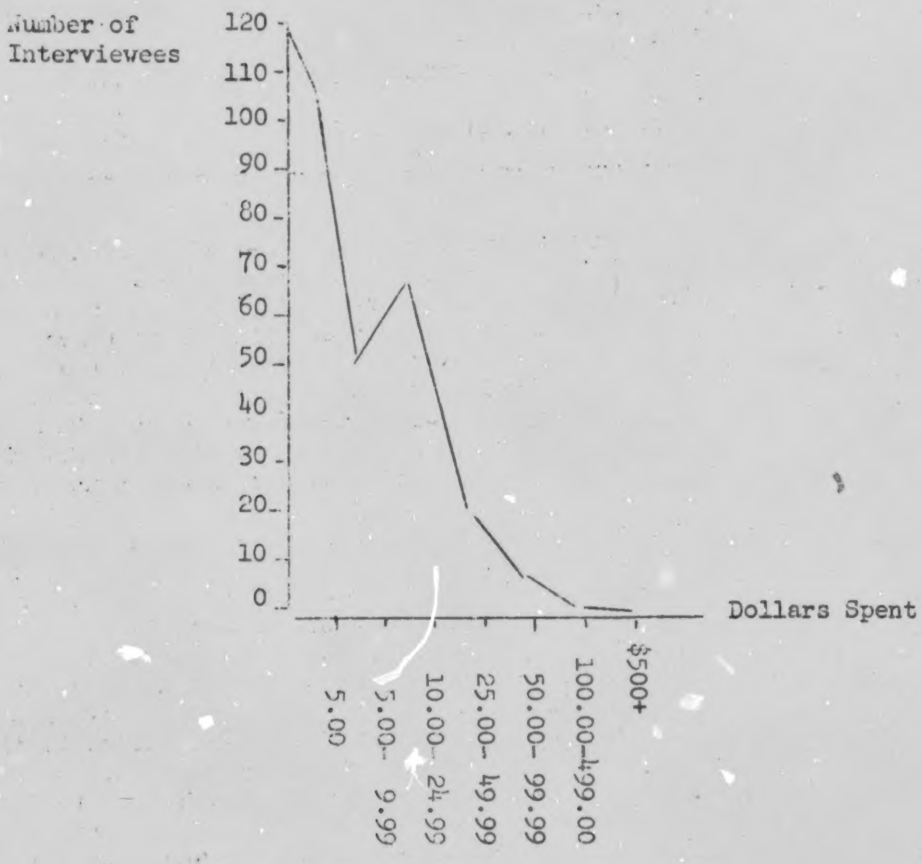
the product and product features that most retailers will include in their advertisements. Possible social motives behind the statement "to look around" that might be included in the copy are diversion from Sunday afternoon activities (watching television), communication with others (hobbies). Edward M. Tauber, in the article "Why Do People Shop?", also outlined some personal motives, including role playing (conforming to "required behaviors," i.e., the wife does all the shopping), physical activity and also just the pleasure of bargaining. Tauber also says, "The likelihood of going shopping on impulse has probably increased over time with changes in the concept of convenience."[4]

Since the objective of the retailer is to sell products and services, it may appear that including non-product features such as those suggested above would be wasteful of advertising effort. But consider the satisfactions which shopping activities provide as well as the utility obtained from a purchased product. Tauber says "if needs other than those associated with particular products motivate people to go to a store, the retailer should incorporate this information into his marketing strategy."[5] Including non-product features in the advertising copy should lead to sales as indicated by the responses in the study. When queried about types of products for which they planned to look, 324 respondents voluntarily mentioned a product or product category, see Graph II. This indicates many of those individuals who did not specifically say they came primarily to make a purchase, did know generally the product of interest to them and some did end up making a purchase.

At the time of the interview, about 70% of the 400 shoppers had made a purchase. See Graph I for the dollar size of these purchases. As shown in the graph, nineteen respondents were unable to estimate the amount spent by their shopping group as the group had scattered and one hundred eighteen respondents had not made a purchase at time of interview. Every category, as far as reasons for shopping today (Sunday), was, however, represented by purchases. The two major categories to purchase a product and to look around were, of course, well represented by purchases. Seventy-five percent of the shoppers who specifically said they planned to purchase a product, or 27.60% (110 shoppers) of the 400 interviewed, did make a purchase but not always of the planned product. Of the 110 shoppers, 55 purchased products other than the main product they sought. In other words, one-half of the group made impulse purchases. The medium dollar amount of the purchases both impulse and planned of those who came specifically for a product was greater (50% more than $10) than the medium expenditure for people who just wanted to look around. Of shoppers whose main

GRAPH I

Amount Spent on Sunday Shopping Trip



reason for the shopping trip was to look around, over 60% or 26.8% (107 shoppers) of the 400 interviewed did buy something. Since they were out on Sunday just to look around, all of their purchases were considered impulse purchases. Most of their purchases were for small dollar amounts, 50% were for amounts less than $5.

It is concluded from the data here that individuals who are on a Sunday shopping trip for the expressed reason of making a product purchase are more likely to make a purchase for a larger dollar amount than are individuals who are Sunday shopping just to look. The data indicates, subject to more analysis, that if the shopper came specifically to buy a product, he either buys the product or is more inclined to go away empty-handed than the individual just looking. In other words, more individuals just looking will make "impulse" purchases than will individuals Sunday shopping for the expressed reason of making a product purchase. Mason and Mayer found from observation of purchasing behavior that "as the price paid for the item increased, the number of stores visited also increased."[6]

Promotionally the retailer might view this from two perspectives. If he can persuade the shopper to start a Sunday shopping trip for the primary purpose of purchasing a product, he should. However, the retailer should make certain that his selection of merchandise of the promoted product is more than adequate. On the other hand, some sales are a function of traffic. Consequently, the retailer may want to promote to generate traffic. This is a good strategy if a majority of the goods carried are of low unit value.

TABLE III

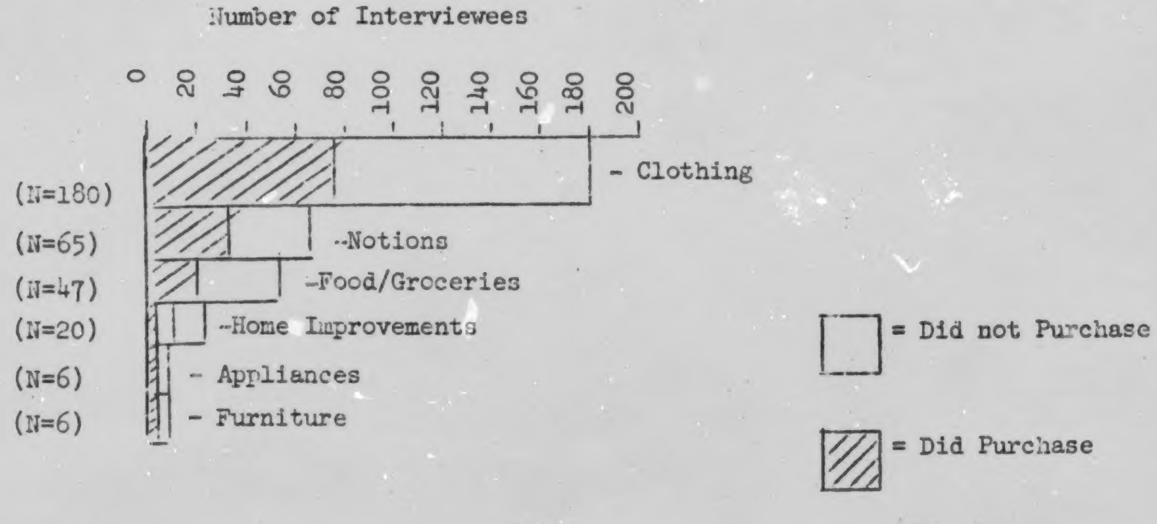
Number of Stores Visited and/or Planned to Visit

Number of Stores	Responses
Less than 5	171
5 to 10	143
More than 10	86

As for traffic, over 40% of the respondents had and/or intended to visit less than five stores. Over three out of four shopping groups had and/or intended to frequent ten or less stores. All stores were located in close proximity to each other. Promotion to increase traffic does seem to be more important for some types of retailers. For example, clothing was the most frequently mentioned product type for which the consumer was looking. Looking includes both those whose primary purpose was to buy a product and those who knew generally the product category they were interested in, but their stated reason for shopping was for something other than buying a product. Forty-two percent of those who set out to look at clothing did purchase clothing, as shown in Graph II.

GRAPH II.

Shopping Plans and Purchases



N in Graph II indicates the number of people who planned to look at products in the product category, while the shaded area indicates the number who actually made a purchase of a planned product. It is possible that some shoppers made purchases after being interviewed. They are not considered in the Graph and neither are the purchases of products in categories other than the one the shoppers expressed interest in.

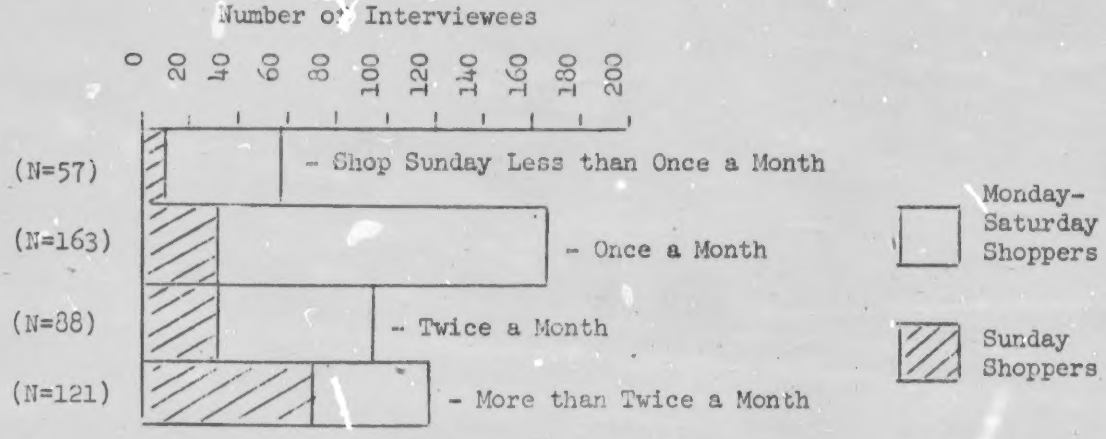
When an individual is likely to be a part of the Sunday shopping traffic appears to be a function of shopping habits of when and where one shops. If the individual shops frequently on Sunday, he is also likely to do his weekday shopping at a location that is open on Sundays. Therefore the retailer should not ignore regular customers in his efforts to attract Sunday business.

However, many Sunday shoppers interviewed, primarily those who did not shop frequently on Sunday, did most of their shopping at locations other than where interviewed. The fact that about 40% do most of their shopping at a location other than interviewed indicated that attraction of customers from other locations is important. Promotional efforts should be expanded beyond the weekday market area. Donald L. Curtiss has pointed out that the "opportunity for family shopping is one of the prime attributes of one-stop shopping and Sunday shopping."[7] Some of the shoppers came from the downtown area which is not open on Sunday. The frequency of Sunday shopping was less if the interviewee shops most of the time downtown. All of the preceding statements with regard to locations and frequency of Sunday shopping are the result of testing the data with Chi Square. All the Chi Square values were significant at $P < 0.05$.

Another dimension is when people do their shopping. It is possible that being open on Sunday only shifts weekday sales to Sunday. Certainly if stimulation of Sunday shopping tends to encourage this shift the amount of promotion becomes an important issue. As indicated in Graph III as the frequency of

GRAPH III

Day of Week Usually Shopped by Frequency of Sunday Shopping



Sunday shopping increases, the day usually shopped has a greater probability of being Sunday. This fact, in conjunction with the fact that a large number of Sunday shoppers do most of their shopping at the location where they were interviewed indicates that some shifting is occurring. In some cases the weekday shopper has become a Sunday shopper. Some respondents indicated they had more than one day they usually shopped. $X^2 = 46.56$; df = 4; $P<0.001$

Shopper Motivation and Attitudes

Another part of understanding the Sunday shopper is to identify what motivates her to shop at a particular location on Sunday and what her attitude or perception of Sunday shopping is. Social and personal motives have already been mentioned. Some characteristics of a location were named more often as advantages of the location than others. Table IV shows the characteristics and their relative importance as given by the respondents in the survey. In advertising for Sunday sales the more popular characteristics could be emphasized, namely product selection and mall atmosphere.

TABLE IV

Frequency of Sunday Shopping as Related to Advantages of the Location

How Often Shop Sunday	Product Selection	Stores Enclosed in Common Mall	Atmosphere	Store Location	Free Parking	Other[1]
Less than once/mo	13	31	16	19	10	4
Once/mo	80	66	48	59	45	35
Twice/mo	47	47	29	45	26	23
More than twice/mo	49	50	48	51	29	29
TOTALS	189	194	141	174	110	91

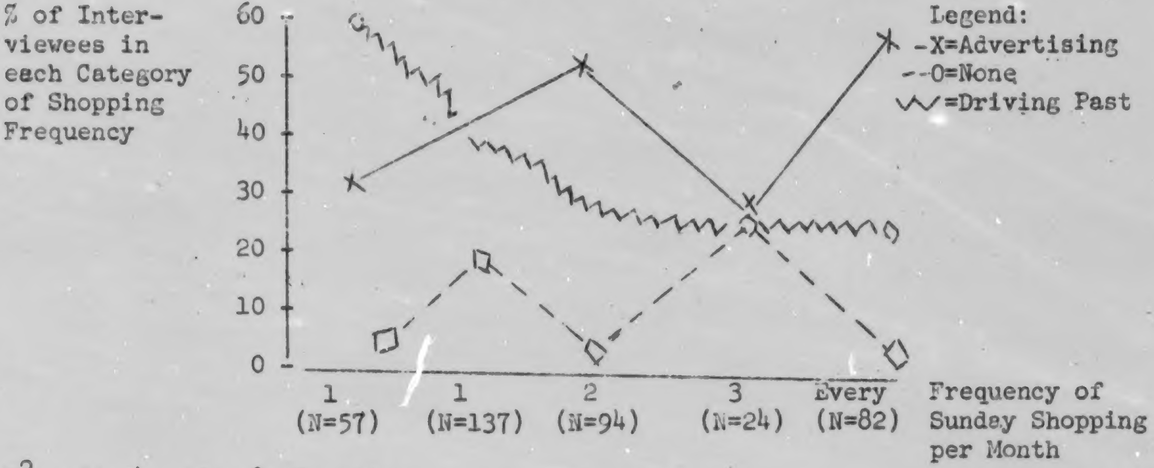
[1] Combined lower prices in general and located close to home.

$X^2 = 19.34$, df = 14; $P < .20$

Another possible stimulus to shop on Sunday would be promotional activities by retailers and retail associations. One hundred thirty one Sunday shoppers stated they were prompted to shop at the location because of advertising. Newspapers were the most important information source for 65% of these individuals. Other Sunday shoppers were prompted by radio, television, magazines, billboards, and the fact the shopper was just driving past. The relative large number who were just driving past and stopped point out the importance of on premise promotion. A large number of people (150) could not identify what had promoted them. This does not mean that advertising did not play a role in their decision. It does mean that they were unable to identify the information source. William M. Weilbacher has pointed out that consumers do not pay attention to all advertising. "When an advertisement does gain his attention, it is very likely not to strike him as annoying or offensive, but it is not very likely to strike him as enjoyable or informative, either."[8] It would therefore be in his best interest if the retailer could initiate effective, informative advertising both in periodical publications and at easily observable locations on the premise.

GRAPH IV

Frequency of Shopping by Information Source



$X^2 = 20.24$; df = 8; $P < .01$

Advertising media became more important as an information source as incident of Sunday shopping increased as indicated by Graph IV. The dip in importance of advertising for those who shop three times per month can be partially explained by the lack of routine associated with shopping three Sundays a month. If shopping every Sunday or every other Sunday, the consumer can develop a media viewing habit or routine, because he comes into contact with the same area periodically. He learns to look for sales at his favorite stores and generally develops certain store loyalties. Ross M. Cunningham suggests that retailers learn more about "the store loyalty patterns of your customers and your competitors' customers...Secondly, learn as much as possible about why people buy where they do...In a shopping area with many competitors, your best bet for holding and increasing sales volume is to improve the quality of your customer loyalty mix."[9]

Sunday shopping is motivated by perception of pleasantness. The shoppers who perceive Sunday shopping as a pleasant change from weekday shopping shop more frequently on Sunday (See Table V). Why Sunday is perceived as more pleasant is unknown, but the leisurely pace plus entertaining atomsphere should not be ruled out. Attempts to improve store appearance and the upgrading of merchanidise are always appreciated by shoppers.

The respondents overwhelmingly had a preference for the afternoon hours only. But as the frequency of Sunday shopping increased, times other than afternoons only are preferred. Occasional shoppers are probably more likely to adhere to customary closings on Sunday mornings because of traditional church services.

Over 50% of those who strongly object to Sunday closing do not shop more than twice a month on Sunday. This might be the person who shops mainly for a certain item he has forgotten or run out of, for example, as contrasted with the person who finds Sunday hours more convenient for him.

TABLE V

Frequency of Sunday Shopping Related to Response on Pleasantness of Sunday Shopping

	Sunday Shopping Pleasant Change from Weekday Shopping		
How Often Shop Sunday	Agree	Disagree	Doesn't Matter
Less than Once a Month	16	10	31
Once a Month	75	14	54
Twice a Month	67	9	18
More than Twice a Month	75	6	25
TOTALS	233	39	128

$X^2 = 37.33$; df = 6; $P < .001$

Marketing Implications and Conclusions

This paper has examined various facets of the Sunday shoppers' profile and has presented empirical data. Promotional implications have been stressed throughout the paper. They are highlighted here: In terms of the psychographic characteristics studied the retailer should aim his efforts at the largest, the middle segment of his trade area. The Sunday shopper was demographically a typical shopper of the trade area. A majority of people said they were out shopping on Sunday either to look around or to purchase a product. In both situations the majority of the people made purchases. The percentage of, and dollar amount of purchases were higher for those who came to purchase a specific product. The retailer should promote his products, especially if he carries clothing, notions, or foods. They were the most frequently planned for purchases. He should encourage his retail association to promote traffic. The retailer should not ignore his regular weekday customers in his promotion since they did make up a sizeable portion of the Sunday shoppers in the study. Likewise he should expect to be able to attract many shoppers who through the week would shop at some other location.

In stimulating Sunday shopping the retailer should realize that the advertising media does influence people but many people just happen to drive by and decide at the spur of the moment to stop. Sunday business will be influenced by uncontrollable factors, perhaps more than any other day. His promotion might emphasize the pleasant atmosphere of shopping Sunday since most of the people interviewed perceived Sunday shopping as more pleasant than weekday shopping. Whether the retailer is open on Sunday or not should be his decision. But if open, they might improve their success by promoting Sunday sales wisely.

Kalamazoo in Relation to Other U.S. Markets --Index Ranking of SM Metropolitan County Areas
(12/31/72)

	Kalamazoo-Portage Statistics	Kalamazoo's Rank Out of 200 U.S. Markets
Median Household Income	9,185	Group Rank 82
Total Net Effective Buying Income	1,007,365,000	Group Rank 125
Number of Households	82,000	Group Rank 135
Population	265,000	Group Rank 133
Total Retail Sales	564,132,000	Group Rank 129
General Merchandising Store Sales	67,290,000	Group Rank 174
Apparel Store Sales	25,574,000	Group Rank 137
Department Store Sales	48,847,000	Group Rank 164
Furniture/Household/Appliance Sales	32,349,000	Group Rank 110
Per Household Retail Sales	6,880	Group Rank 114
Kalamazoo City total Retail Sales	457,955,000	193

Kalamazoo City has 3,319 households earning $25,000 or up

Source: 1973 Survey of Buying Power, Sales Management, July 23, 1973, Volume 111, No. 2.

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END OF SESSION II

SESSION III: PERSPECTIVES ON RESEARCH - EXPERIMENTAL

PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN'S TELEVISION ADVERTISING: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE BELIEFS AND ATTITUDES OF CONSUMER, INDUSTRY, AND GOVERNMENT RESPONDENTS

by
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Introduction. This report summarizes one phase of a multiphase research project into the effects of television advertising and news programming on children. The overall research project was under the direction of Dr. Charles K. Atkin, Assistant Professor of Communications at Michigan State University. The project leader for this phase of the study was Dr. James D. Culley, Assistant Professor in the Department of Business Administration at the University of Delaware. Assisting in this phase of the study were Dr. William Lazer and Dr. W. J. E. Crissy, Professors of Marketing and Transportation Administration at Michigan State University. The project was partially funded through grants from the Office of Child Development, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Purpose. It has been said that much of the current controversy regarding television advertising and its effect on children is the result of ineffective communication between broadcaster, researchers, and critics of television broadcasting (Scott Ward, "Kids TV-Marketers on Hot Seat," Harvard Business Review, July-August 1972, pp. 16-18ff). Each of these interest groups pursues the subject with markedly different assumptions concerning the issues and with erroneous or incomplete perceptions of how the other parties involved view the same issues. The result is a series of "dialogues that never really happen." (See Raymond A. Bauer and Stephen A. Greyser, "The Dialogue That Never Happens ((Thinking Ahead))," Harvard Business Review, November-December 1967, p. 2ff).

Although there exists a large number of studies focusing on the general public's attitudes towards advertising as a marketing tool, in only a few cases has an attempt been made to deal with areas of specific concern to those interested in children's television advertising. Moreover, a survey of the literature revealed practically no attitude studies of the key people involved in the creation, production, research, and evaluation of advertising directed at children (When children's television is referred to in this report, it means regularly scheduled network programs for which children make up the largest percentage of the viewing audience. "Children" designates any individual aged 12 or younger. Most network programs on Saturday and Sunday from 8:00 a.m. to 1:30 p.m. and The Captain Kangaroo Show weekdays on CBS would, therefore, be considered children's television shows.). Yet, these people are among the best sources of information on the various issues involved, the ones most likely to influence and to be influenced by policy decisions in the area, and the expert opinion leaders for much of the general public.

The purpose of this research study was to present an objective examination of the attitudes and co-orientation ability of five key respondent groups toward the major issues surrounding the subject of children's television advertising. The five groups included in the study were:

1. Action for Children's Television Spokesmen (ACT). This Boston based consumer group has had considerable success in petitioning the Federal Communication Commission and the Federal Trade Commission for changes in present policies regarding children's television advertising. ACT has also been successful in raising money for research on the subject of children's television and children's television advertising and in influencing public opinion of the major issues involved with children's television advertising. A judgment sample of sixty ACT spokesmen was selected for the survey by the founders of ACT, eighty-five percent of the sample completed the survey.

2. Advertising Agency Executives. Much of the criticism of children's television advertising has to do with the techniques and the content of commercials aimed at children. In this study, 107 presidents and top executive officers of twenty-four advertising agencies that create, produce, and buy broadcast time on children's television programs were sent copies of the survey. Sixty-six percent completed the questionnaire. In gathering preliminary data for the study, personal interviews were also conducted with the top executives at ten of the twenty-four agencies included in the final survey.

3. Top Advertisers. There is a great variety of products advertised on children's television, but most fall into one of four categories: toys, cereals, candies, and other food items. In this study, seventy-five copies of the final questionnaire were mailed to the presidents and top executive officers of thirty firms sponsoring shows, or frequently running commercials, on network children's television. Forty-five percent of the sample mailed back usable questionnaires.

4. Members of the Federal Trade Commission (FTC), the Federal Communications Commission (FCC), and Key Members of Congress. A judgment sample of forty-nine congressmen was included in the government sample. These congressmen were selected because of their expressed interest in and voting record on consumer causes. In addition, fifteen commissioners and top staff officers of the FTC and the FCC were included in the sample. Sixty-six percent of the government sample responded to the survey, but only thirty-four percent of the sample sent back completed questionnaires.

5. Members of the Network Review Boards. Major gatekeepers for all commercials destined for airing on network television are the network review or continuity boards. Though the number of people on these boards is small, the board members hold a major position in determining what is or is not acceptable for showing on the networks. Thirteen review board members from the three major networks were mailed copies of the survey, but only six responded. Due to the small size of the sample group and the low response rate, no statistical analyses using the review board sample were attempted.

Date Collection and Analysis. A mail questionnaire was used as the major research instrument. The questionnaire was divided into two major sections. The first section contained a number of Likert-type attitudinal items designed to test the variance within and mean difference between the responses of the surveyed groups on major issues regarding children's television advertising. The second section of the questionnaire was designed to measure three relationships between the various respondent groups: the amount of cognitive overlap, or similarity in attitudes of the respondents, the perceived cognitive overlap or extent to which each respondent thought his beliefs were the same as other participants completing the survey, and the accuracy of the respondents in estimating the position of other respondents on issues involving children's television advertising.

Six general hypotheses and twenty-two research hypotheses were included in the study. All the general hypotheses and seventeen of the research hypotheses concerned the following topics: (1) the need for regulation of children's television advertising; (2) the method of regulating children's television advertising; (3) the effects of television commercials on children; (4) the techniques used in commercials aired on children's television; (5) the products advertised on children's television, and (6) major proposals regarding the future of children's television advertising. Five research hypotheses concerned the ability of the individuals involved with children's television advertising to interact effectively on the issues involved.

Two mailings of the survey were made. The initial mailing was made June 12, 1973. The follow-up mailing, sent to all respondents failing or refusing to complete the initial questionnaire, was made one month later.

T-tests, analysis of variance tests, and Duncan range tests were the basic statistical tools used in the analyses.

Major Findings. The major study findings are summarized below:

(1) The Regulation of Children's Television Advertising. Members of the industry, government, and Action for Children's Television (ACT) samples agreed that advertising directed at children requires special attention and regulation because of the nature of the viewing audience. Members of the ACT and government samples felt that more regulation was needed and that self-regulation by the industry would not suffice. Industry respondents, on the other hand, felt that the existing self-regulatory framework was sufficient to handle the situation and should be given more of a chance to work.

Nearly ninety percent of the ACT respondents favored banning commercials from children's television. As might be expected, over ninety percent of the industry respondents opposed the idea. The government respondents were almost equally divided on the issue.

Over eighty percent of the ACT respondents and nearly fifty percent of the government respondents favored the proposal that commercials on children's television be preceded by a notice stating that what was to follow was an ad. Over seventy percent of the industry respondents were opposed to the idea. Many industry respondents commented that they thought the proposal would have little, if any, effect on children, and would be a waste of time.

One survey item concerned the use of simulcasts (permitting two or more networks to air the same program) to improve the quality of children's television. The idea behind the proposal was that the networks would not be force into putting their best programs into competing time periods in order to achieve high ratings and that fewer programs would mean that networks could devote more time and money to so-called "quality programs." But the majority of those expressing an opinion of the simulcast proposal, in all four respondent groups, felt that simulcasts would not significantly help the quality of children's television.

A number of critics have proposed that commercials on children's programs be "bunched" at the beginning or end of a program or, as is done in many countries of the world, "bunched" during a particular period of the day. Those in the industry have complained that this proposal would significantly decrease the effect of the commercial message. The respondents were asked if they thought "bunching" would lessen the effect of the advertiser's message. The majority of each respondent group expressing an opinion on the item agreed with the conclusion of the industry respondents.

The survey item data pertaining to the regulation of children's television advertising are listed in Tables 1 and 2.

(2) The Effects of Television Advertising on Children. There were highly significant differences in how the various groups viewed the effects of television advertising on children. The majority of both industry samples felt that children's television advertising helps to develop a child's ability to make good consumer decisions. The majority of the ACT and government samples disagreed strongly. Similar differences were evident on such questions as: Does advertising lead to an increase in parent-child conflict? Do commercials arouse anxieties and feelings of insecurity in children? Is there a connection between commercials for pharmaceuticals and the nation's rising drug usage problem among children?

Nearly half of both the ACT and government respondents felt there is a direct association between commercials for pharmaceuticals and the nation's rising drug usage problem among young people. None of the ACT or government respondents felt that vitamin companies should advertise on children's television. Interestingly enough, over forty percent of the industry respondents agreed that vitamin companies should not advertise on children's programs. In contrast with the ACT and government respondents, however, less than twenty percent of them felt there was a direct connection between pharmaceutical advertising and the drug usage problem.

The survey item data pertaining to the effects of television commercials on children are summarized in Table 3.

(3) The People and Techniques Involved with Children's Television Advertising. Several of the statements included in the survey concerned various aspects of the National Association of Broadcasters Television Code. The NAB Television Code specifically prohibits program hosts or primary cartoon characters from delivering messages within or adjacent to the program which features such hosts or cartoon characters. (Section X-4 of the Television Code states: "Children's program hosts or primary cartoon characters shall not be utilized to deliver commercial messages within or adjacent to the programs which feature such hosts or cartoon characters. This provision shall also apply to lead-ins to commercials when such lead-ins contain sell copy or imply endorsements of the product by the program host or primary cartoon character.")

TABLE 1: Opinions Concerning Regulation

Item		Advertiser	Agency	ACT	Government
(1) Television advertising to children should be more regulated than it already is.	Agree	8.8%	22.9%	100.0%	90.9%
	No Opinion	5.9	11.4	.0	.0
	Disagree	85.3	65.7	.0	9.1
	Mean*	2.00	2.40	4.91	4.23
	St. Dev.	.92	1.15	.29	.87
(4) Commercials to children should be regulated by advertisers themselves.	Agree	67.7%	63.2%	13.6%	22.7%
	No Opinion	11.8	5.9	4.5	4.5
	Disagree	20.6	30.9	81.8	72.7
	Mean	3.59	3.44	1.68	2.36
	St. Dev.	.96	1.29	1.20	1.14
(6) There are too many commercials on shows children watch.	Agree	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%	95.5%
	No Opinion	9.4	5.9	.0	4.5
	Disagree	40.6	44.1	.0	.0
	Mean	3.06	3.07	4.93	4.46
	St. Dev.	1.01	1.27	.26	.60
(8) Most children's television commercials present a true picture of the product advertised.	Agree	76.5%	67.1%	.0%	9.1%
	No Opinion	14.7	18.6	.0	9.1
	Disagree	8.8	14.3	100.0	81.8
	Mean	3.82	3.60	1.25	2.05
	St. Dev.	.80	.92	.44	.84
(10) Performers should be allowed to sell products on children's television shows.	Agree	41.2%	40.6%	2.3%	.0%
	No Opinion	8.8	11.6	.0	19.0
	Disagree	50.0	47.8	97.7	81.0
	Mean	2.85	2.96	1.16	1.71
	St. Dev.	1.21	1.16	.65	.78
(15) Children's television advertising requires special regulation because of the nature of the viewing audience.	Agree	55.9%	61.5%	97.7%	86.4%
	No Opinion	11.8	7.1	2.3	4.5
	Disagree	32.4	31.4	.0	9.1
	Mean	3.24	3.27	4.82	4.05
	St. Dev.	1.18	1.22	.45	.84
(16) The trade association guidelines in use today have done little to improve the quality of children's television advertising.	Agree	.0%	15.7%	97.8%	63.6%
	No Opinion	.0	11.4	2.3	22.7
	Disagree	100.0	72.9	.0	13.6
	Mean	1.68	2.10	4.59	3.55
	St. Dev.	.48	1.04	.54	.80

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*Scores of 5,4,3,2, and 1 were assigned to the various response categories (strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, strongly disagree) according to the amount of agreement expressed by the respondent. The higher the mean score, the more favorable the respondents were to the items as stated.

TABLE 1 continued

Item		Adver-tiser	Agency	ACT	Govern-ment
(18) Commercials to children should be regulated by the government.	Agree	11.8%	11.5%	70.4%	50.0%
	No Opinion	2.9	4.3	11.4	31.8
	Disagree	85.3	84.3	18.2	18.2
	Mean	1.85	1.76	3.86	3.46
	St. Dev.	.96	1.07	1.21	1.01
(20) New regulations should restrict the techniques used in advertising toys.	Agree	21.9%	36.3%	93.0%	63.6%
	No Opinion	25.0	9.1	7.0	31.8
	Disagree	53.1	54.5	.0	4.5
	Mean	2.44	2.68	4.58	3.73
	St. Dev.	1.19	1.23	.63	.77
(22) Advertising on children's television programs should be banned completely.	Agree	.0%	2.8%	88.6%	36.3%
	No Opinion	2.9	2.9	11.4	31.8
	Disagree	97.1	94.3	.0	31.8
	Mean	1.18	1.40	4.61	3.18
	St. Dev.	.72	.75	.69	1.05
(24) All commercials on children's television should be preceded by a notice stating that what is to follow is an ad.	Agree	5.8%	11.4%	79.5%	44.5%
	No Opinion	14.7	17.1	18.2	36.4
	Disagree	79.4	71.4	2.3	9.1
	Mean	2.03	2.24	4.18	3.59
	St. Dev.	.90	1.00	.82	.85
(28) It is up to the child's parents to regulate children's television viewing behavior.	Agree	100.0%	97.2%	81.4%	66.7%
	No Opinion	.0	2.9	.0	9.5
	Disagree	.0	.0	18.6	23.8
	Mean	4.28	4.51	3.93	3.43
	St. Dev.	.49	.56	1.22	1.03

TABLE 2: Implications Concerning Regulation

Item		Adver-tiser	Agency	ACT	Govern-ment
(3) The quality of children's television would be better if it weren't controlled by advertising dollars.	Agree	.0%	17.3%	86.4%	72.8%
	No Opinion	3.0	4.3	11.4	18.2
	Disagree	97.0	78.3	2.3	9.1
	Mean	1.58	1.97	4.61	3.97
	St. Dev.	.66	1.20	.78	.93
(5) There is nothing wrong with advertising vitamin tablets on children's television programs.	Agree	44.1%	44.3%	.0%	.0%
	No Opinion	23.5	18.6	.0	18.2
	Disagree	32.4	37.1	100.0	81.8
	Mean	3.09	3.10	1.16	1.77
	St. Dev.	1.19	1.26	.37	.75

TABLE 2 continued

Item		Advertiser	Agency	ACT	Government
(9) "Bunching" commercials before or after a program would significantly lessen the impact of the advertiser's message.	Agree	70.6%	61.4%	38.6%	36.4%
	No Opinion	26.5	20.0	31.8	50.0
	Disagree	2.9	18.6	29.5	13.6
	Mean	4.09	3.61	3.02	3.18
	St. Dev.	.90	1.04	1.09	.80
(14) Simulcasts (permitting 2 or more networks to run the same program at the same time) would help improve the quality of children's television.	Agree	8.8%	11.8%	13.9%	9.1%
	No Opinion	20.6	36.8	65.1	68.2
	Disagree	70.6	51.5	20.9	22.7
	Mean	2.24	2.38	2.91	2.77
	St. Dev.	.92	1.01	.75	.75
(21) Stricter guidelines regarding the use of disclaimers (such as batteries not included) would improve many children's commercials.	Agree	25.0%	35.3%	65.9%	50.0%
	No Opinion	21.9	14.7	18.2	27.3
	Disagree	53.1	50.0	15.9	22.7
	Mean	2.66	2.74	3.54	3.23
	St. Dev.	.94	1.19	1.04	.92

TABLE 3: The Effects of Television Advertising on Children

Item		Advertiser	Agency	ACT	Government
(2) Advertising helps develop a child's ability to make good consumer decisions.	Agree	70.6%	64.7%	2.3%	22.7%
	No Opinion	20.6	17.6	2.3	9.1
	Disagree	8.8	17.6	95.5	68.2
	Mean	3.68	3.54	1.34	2.36
	St. Dev.	.73	.97	.75	1.18
(7) Commercials often persuade children to want things they don't really need.	Agree	50.0%	66.1%	100.0%	95.4%
	No Opinion	3.3	7.4	.0	.0
	Disagree	46.7	26.5	.0	4.5
	Mean	2.93	3.41	4.89	4.54
	St. Dev.	1.14	1.24	.32	.74
(13) Most children understand what commercials on children's shows are trying to do.	Agree	88.2%	81.1%	6.8%	4.8%
	No Opinion	2.9	13.0	2.3	23.8
	Disagree	8.8	5.8	90.9	71.4
	Mean	3.97	4.09	1.66	2.29
	St. Dev.	.76	.84	.91	.64
(23) Television commercials lead to an increase in parent-child conflict.	Agree	2.9%	7.4%	93.2%	63.6%
	No Opinion	5.9	22.1	4.5	27.3
	Disagree	91.2	70.6	2.3	9.1
	Mean	1.71	2.07	4.34	3.55
	St. Dev.	.72	.90	.68	.67

TABLE 3 continued

Item		Advertiser	Agency	ACT	Government
(25) Television commercials often arouse anxieties and feelings of insecurity in children.	Agree	2.9%	2.9%	75.0%	40.9%
	No Opinion	2.9	17.6	22.7	54.5
	Disagree	94.1	79.4	2.3	4.5
	Mean	1.79	1.97	4.14	3.36
	St. Dev.	.64	.75	.85	.58
(29) There is a connection between commercials for pharmaceuticals and the nation's rising drug usage among young people.	Agree	2.9%	13.0%	56.8%	50.0%
	No Opinion	17.6	26.1	38.6	40.9
	Disagree	79.4	60.9	4.5	9.1
	Mean	1.88	2.23	3.75	3.46
	St. Dev.	.81	1.21	.85	.74

The majority of the industry, government, and ACT respondents agreed with this provision of the code.

As of January 1, 1973, the NAB Television Code permitted no more than twelve minutes of non-program material in any sixty minutes of children's weekend programming. (Children's weekend programming time is defined as that perio of time between the hours of 7:00 AM and 2:00 PM on Saturday and Sunday. See Section XIV-2c of the Television Code.) Also, as of that date, the number of program interruptions in children's weekend programs could not exceed two withi any thirty-minute program or four within any sixty minute program. (See Sectio XIV-3d of the Television Code.) The majority of the respondents included in th study felt that this provision of the code was not strong enough. All of the ACT respondents, ninety-six percent of the government respondents, and fifty percent of the industry respondents agreed with the statement: "There are too many commercials on shows children watch." It may be that the respondents objected to the number of commercials being aired on children's programs, the number of commercial interruptions on children's programs, or the amount of time devoted to commercials on children's television, or some combination of these. This was not determined by the study.

There was a definite difference in attitude between the industry responden and the ACT and government respondents regarding the truthfulness and taste of commercials directed at children. Not one of the ACT respondents, and less tha twenty percent of the government respondents, felt that children's television commercials present a true picture of the products advertised. Nearly seventy percent of the industry respondents, on the other hand, felt that they do. Not one of the ACT respondents, and only fourteen percent of the government respondents, felt that television commercials aimed at children are usually in good taste. Yet seventy-four percent of the agency respondents, and seventy-nine percent of the advertiser respondents, felt that they are. Over ninety percent of the ACT respondents and sixty-eight percent of the government respondents felt that children's television commercials are purposely disguised to blend in with the programs. Over sixty-five percent of the industry respondents felt that they are not. Many of the ACT and government respondents expressed particularly strong opinions about those in the advertising industry buying and producing commercials directed at children. Over seventy percent of both respondent groups felt that advertisers are not really concerned about children: They just want to sell their products. Less than five percent of the ACT respondents and less than forty percent of the government respondents agreed with the statement: "Most advertisers are good people trying their best to provide what the public wants." Over eighty percent of the ACT respondents, and over seventy percent of the government respondents, expressed the feeling that children's television would be better if it were not controlled by "advertising dollars."

The survey item data pertaining to the people and techniques involved with children's television programming and children's television advertising are summarized in Table 4.

TABLE 4: The People and Techniques Involved with Children's Television Advertising

Item		Advertiser	Agency	ACT	Government
(11) Television commercials aimed at children are usually in good taste.	Agree	79.4%	73.9%	.0%	13.6%
	No Opinion	11.8	11.6	2.3	9.1
	Disagree	8.8	14.5	97.7	77.3
	Mean	3.85	3.74	1.48	2.14
	St. Dev.	.78	.89	.55	.94
(12) Commercials on children's television are often purposely disguised to blend in with the programs.	Agree	20.6%	25.7%	90.9%	68.2%
	No Opinion	5.9	5.7	4.5	27.3
	Disagree	73.5	68.6	4.5	4.5
	Mean	2.41	2.41	4.23	3.64
	St. Dev.	1.16	1.16	.74	.58
(17) The advertising industry should sponsor a "Television Broadcast Center" to finance quality children's programs.	Agree	8.8%	24.6%	56.8%	36.3%
	No Opinion	17.6	15.9	29.5	50.0
	Disagree	73.5	59.4	13.6	13.6
	Mean	2.12	2.44	3.61	3.27
	St. Dev.	.88	1.24	1.21	.77
(19) Most advertisers on children's television make a sincere effort to present their products truthfully.	Agree	94.2%	84.3%	.0%	13.6%
	No Opinion	5.9	10.0	4.5	27.3
	Disagree	.0	5.7	95.5	59.1
	Mean	4.27	4.03	1.52	2.46
	St. Dev.	.57	.76	.59	.86
(26) Most advertisers are good people trying their best to provide what the public wants.	Agree	88.2%	77.9%	2.3%	31.8%
	No Opinion	11.8	14.7	6.8	31.8
	Disagree	.0	7.4	90.9	36.4
	Mean	4.27	3.99	1.57	2.96
	St. Dev.	.67	.86	.73	.84
(27) Most advertisers on children's television aren't really concerned about kids, they just want to sell their products.	Agree	2.9%	24.6%	97.7%	77.2%
	No Opinion	14.7	7.2	.0	4.5
	Disagree	82.4	68.1	2.3	18.2
	Mean	1.82	2.41	4.68	3.64
	St. Dev.	.80	1.16	.71	.85

Implications. In recent years, government and business spokesmen have advocated a dialogue between key government, industry, and consumer groups to reduce friction and advance the general good. Yet, such a dialogue never seems to happen. Rather, what passes for dialogue in form is usually only a sequence of monologues in fact, wherein each spokesman grants "equal time" to others and pretends to listen while actually preparing his own set of comments.

The findings of this study indicate that the lack of effective interaction between government, industry, and consumer spokesmen, at least regarding children's television advertising, is not due to a lack of understanding. The groups included in this study indicated they do understand each other's positions on most issues remarkably well.

The findings point up the critical need for industry spokesmen to establish an effective dialogue with government representatives and consumer spokesmen, particularly spokesmen for Action for Children's Television, if they hope to continue operating with the relative freedom they now enjoy. On almost every issue in the survey, the attitudes and opinions of the government respondents agreed with those of the ACT respondents. Both were usually in conflict with the attitudes and opinions of the industry--a fact that has serious implications regarding present public opinion and potential legislation and regulatory actions.

The study data supported most of the research hypotheses. Yet the large differences in attitude between the surveyed groups, and the small amount of variance in the surveyed groups, is the most striking finding in the study.

The difference in attitudes between the industry respondents and the ACT and government respondents is so large that no publicity campaign or good will effort on the part of the industry seems likely to have much effect on either group, at least not in the immediate future.

EVALUATING RESEARCH PROJECTS
- A Bayesian Solution -

by
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The testing of a new advertising campaign is often based on test market research which is asked to supply the basis for a "go, no-go" decision. The data are usually required to answer the question of whether the test campaign has reached its goals. The decision is then made by the various personnel involved--advertising, marketing, sales--using the test data and any other pertinent information.

The quality of the decision depends in part on the statistical test employed and in part on the criteria employed by the decision-makers. Therefore, this paper first discusses the kinds of errors that any well-designed statistical test may lead to. The discussion is then extended to incorporate the judgments of those who must decide to adopt the campaign. Finally, we arrive at a procedure for providing an over-all assessment of a campaign which can be expressed in terms of the expected returns from the campaign and the costs of the campaign's development and the research costs.

The Nature of a Statistical Test (1)

A statistical test proceeds along the following path. First, a testable statement, or hypothesis, is set up: for example,the brand share of market produced by the new campaign is no greater than that produced by the current campaign. Second, data are collected and compared to this hypothesis. The alternatives available to the decision-maker are, then:

a. If the brand share produced by the new campaign is less than that of the current campaign, the hypothesis is accepted. (In effect, the new campaign is discarded.)

b. If the new campaign's brand share is significantly greater than that of the standard campaitn, the hypothesis is rejected. (In effect, the new campaign is accepted.) The rejection of the hypothesis is made on the basis of likelihood--if the hypothesis is true, what is the probability that the observed test result would appear? If this probability is low (say, less than 5/100), this result is deemed inconsistent with the hypothesis and the hypothesis is rejected. (This probability is known as the test's significance level.)

The errors that these decision procedures can lead to are displayed in Table I. Four situations are presented. First, the hypothesis as stated in the test is either true or false. Either of these situations is the reality of which we are not aware and the determination of which is the subject of the test. When the conclusion drawn from the test matches the reality, a correct decision has been made. Otherwise, the decision is incorrent. There are two kinds of incorrect decisions and each is unique in terms of the consequences it lead to.

Type I Error - This error appears when the hypothesis is really true, but the evidence indicates that it is false. When it occurs, we adopt the new procedure when it is no better than the current one. As a consequence the investment will be made to develop and launch the new campaign and, at best, its productivity will be no greater than that of the current one. The probability of committing this error is the same as the significance level of the test and is usually called α.

Type II Error - This error is made when the hypothesis is really false, but the evidence indicates that it is true. When this error is made, it means that we fail to adopt the new campaign when it is in fact more productive than the current one. The consequence, of course, is losing an opportunity to improve the brand's position. The probability of committing this error may be computed and is usually called β.

TABLE I

Decision Table for Standard Statistical Tests*

The Statistical Evidence Leads to the Conclusion that the Hypothesis is:	The Hypothesis is Really	
	True	False
True	Correct (1-α)	Incorrect Type II Error: (α)
False	Incorrect Type I Error: (β)	Correct (1-β)

*Figures in ( ) represent the probability of making the choice indicated in the cell.

Some Subjective Considerations

Standard statistical testing procedures go this far. The expansion from this point is based on the consideration of whether the stated hypothesis is really true. We may argue that the statement that the hypothesis is really true can itself not be made in an absolute manner. We can, for example, argue that the hypothesis may either be true or false and, because our ignorance about the issue is so great, the best we may say is that each alternative is really likely. For the moment, let's assume that the probability that the hypothesis is true is equal to a value P. The table can then be redrawn as Table II.

With this value, we can now calculate the probability that the results of the test and reality will agree and we will be led to a correct decision. If P(C) is the symbol for the probability of making a correct decision, we have

$$P(C) = P(1-\alpha) + (1-P)(1-\beta) \qquad (\#1)$$

The most fortuitous situation exists when $\beta = 0$, or the probability of making a Type II Error is small enough to be ignored. In this situation, P(C) becomes

$$P(C) = 1 - P\alpha \qquad (\#2)$$

For example, if the probability that the stated hypothesis is true equals 1/2, and the statistical test has been conducted at the .05 significance level, $P(c) = 1-(0.5)(.05) = .975$; i.e., the probability of arriving at a correct decision is never greater than 975 in 1,000.

TABLE II

Decision Table for Standard Statistical Tests
(Extension 1)

	The Hypothesis is Really	
	True	False
(Probability =	P	1 - P)
The statistical evidence leads to the conclusion that the hypothesis is:		
True	Correct $\{1 - \alpha\}$	Incorrect $\{\beta\}$
False	Incorrect $\{\alpha\}$	Correct $\{1 - \beta\}$

Introducing Costs & Profits

Let us consider a second extension of the decision table, one involving both the costs of the various operations involved (i.e., cost of developing the test campaign, cost of the research, cost of switching to the new campaign) and the possible returns from the new campaign.

Let D = cost of developing the new campaign materials
R = cost of research
S = cost of switching to new campaign, including production costs for the new materials required.
N_0 = returns from the current campaign (i.e., if brand share of sales is the critical criterion, then N can be read in terms of sales)
I = the relative improvement in the new campaign; in this instance, I is the relative increase in brand share produced by the new campaign.

Table III incorporates these elements. If the hypothesis is true and the data lead to that conclusion, the cost of arriving at this point is (D+R), the cost of developing the test ad plus the cost of doing the research. If the hypothesis is false and the data say so, the total cost is (D+S+R), the costs of development and research plus the cost of switching to the new ad.

TABLE III

Decision Table for Standard Statistical Test
(Extensions 1 and 2)

	The Hypothesis is Really:	
	True	False
(Probability =	P	$1 - P$)
The Statistical Evidence Leads to the Conclusion that the Hypothesis is:		
True	Correct $(1-\alpha)$ $N_o-(D+R)$	Incorrect (β) $N_o-(D+R)$
False	Incorrect (α) $N_o-(D+S+R)$	Correct $(1-\beta)$ $N_o(I)-(D+S+R)$

The elements of Table III permit the calculation of the expected net return of the entire test procedure. (2)

$$E(N) = P(1-\alpha)(N_o-D-R) + P(\alpha)\,(N_o-D-S-R)$$
$$+ (1-P)(\beta)(N_o-D-R) + (1-P)(1-\beta)\{N_o(1+I)-D-S-R\} \qquad (\#3)$$

This simplifies to

$$E(N) = N_o\{1+(1-P)(1-\beta)I\} - S\{P\alpha + (1-P)(1-\beta)\}-(D+R) \qquad (\#4)$$

In other words, the expected net return of the entire procedure of developing, testing and implementing an advertising campaign is described in equation #4. It consists of the improvement achieved by the new campaign (the first term), less the cost of switching to the new campaign (the second term), less the cost of development (D) and research (R).

An Example

Let us suppose that:
$R = \$10,000$
$D = \$25,000$
$S = \$100,000$
$N_o = \$500,000$

We also assume that the statistical test is equivalent to one based on a sample size of 200 interviews and that $\alpha = .05$, the significance level; finally, $P = .50$. The calculation of E(N) in this example is:

$$\begin{aligned} E(N) &= 500{,}000\,\{1 + (1-.5)(1-\beta)I\} - 100{,}000\,\{.5(.05) + (1-.5)(1-\beta)\} \\ &\quad - 25{,}000 - 10{,}000 \\ &= 500{,}000\,\{1 + .5(1-\beta)I\} - 100{,}000\,\{.025 -.5\,(1-\beta)\} - 35{,}000 \end{aligned}$$

Now, I and β are related in this sense: the greater the superiority of the new campaign over the current one (as measured by I), the smaller the value of β (i.e., the smaller the likelihood to accept the hypothesis that the new campaign is no better than the old).

Table IV lists values of β for several values of I. Under the conditions cited for this example, the values of β appear to drop fairly quickly as I improves. Increasing the scope of the research effort, and R as a consequence, would make the β-values drop even more rapidly. If the new campaign is really no better than the current one (I=1.00), the entire campaign development and testing process yields an Expected Return of $470,500. Remembering that the current procedure yields a return of $500,000, and noting that a return of this magnitude can be achieved only if the new campaign is nearly 10% better than the old one, how can one increase the likelihood to achieve this degree of improvement?

TABLE IV

Comparison of Probabilities of Type II Errors and Expected Returns, for Various Levels of Campaign Improvement

Relative Improvement of New Campaign (I)	Probability of Committing Type II Error (β)	Expected Return (E(N))
1.00	.950	$470,500
1.05	.887	486,500
1.10	.789	510,000
1.15	.655	545,450
1.20	.508	585,500
1.25	.356	631,550
1.30	.227	675,100
1.35	.134	710,800
1.40	.071	741,200
1.45	.034	764,400
1.50	.015	782,650
1.60	.005	810,750
1.80	-	862,500
2.00	-	912,500

Before turning to this issue in the next section of this paper, we can review Table V and Chart I, as a graphic representation of the data in Table V. This table reviews both the degree of Campaign Improvement and the Expected Return, as well as the marginal changes in the Expected Return. Chart I highlights the point that increases in Expected Return, relative to Campaign Improvements, reach their maximum at a point around I = 1.25, suggesting that there is an optimum point in seeking campaign improvements, beyond which the returns will continue to increase, but at a decreasing rate.

TABLE V

Incremental Returns on Campaign Improvement

Relative Improvement Of New Campaign	Change In Expected Return	Incremental Return Per Unit Improvement In Campaign
1.00	-	-
1.05	$16,000	$3,200
1.10	23,500	4,700
1.15	35,450	7,090
1.20	40,050	8,010
1.25	46,050	9,210
1.30	43,550	8,710
1.35	35,700	7,140
1.40	30,400	6,080
1.45	23,200	4,640
1.50	18,250	3,650
1.60	28,100	2,810
1.80	51,750	2,588
2.00	50,000	2,500

Determining the Value of P

Calculating the value of P, the Probability of Truth, is a metaphysical question which might seem to be out of place in a discussion of this sort. In practice, however, such assessments are made often, with likelihood calculations implicit in the decision-making. We would like to make these calculations more explicit. But before doing so, a review of Table VI will demonstrate, in terms of an example, the effect of extreme values of P on the calculations of E(N) and the marginal effect of campaign improvements on the expected return.

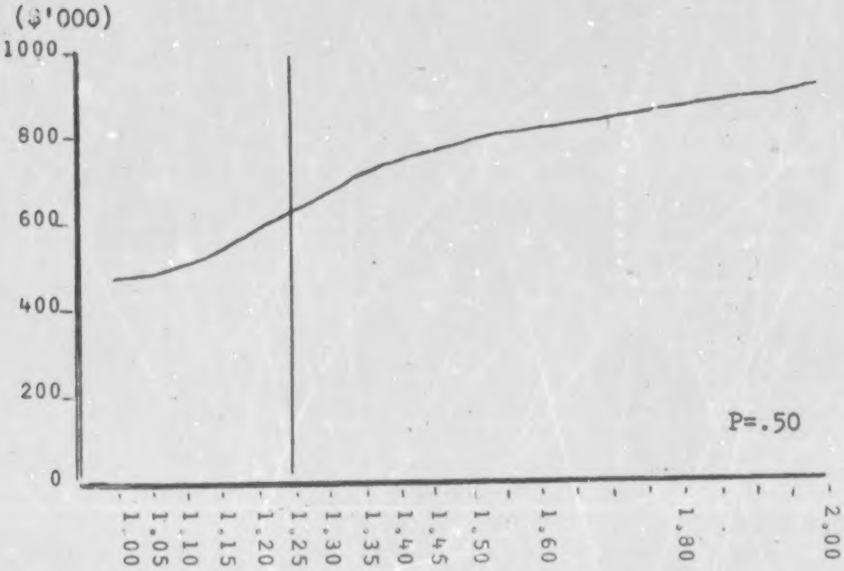
First, we will take P=.80. The probability that the stated hypothesis is true (i.e., that the new campaign is no better than the old) is .80; the likelihood that the new campaign is an improvement is then equal to .20.

Second, at the other extreme, the likelihood of truth of the hypothesis is set at P=.20, the likelihood of truth that the new campaign is an improvement is equal to .80. As expected, when P=.20, the payoff is higher and reaches the present level of $500,000 most rapidly. In other words, the better the batting average in designing campaigns, the more satisfactory the expected payoff in any given situation. When P=.80, the good ideas have to be even more profitable (with improvements of nearly 20% to reach a break-even point) than in the case of P=.20. In this latter instance, winning involves only 5% improvement to reach break-even.

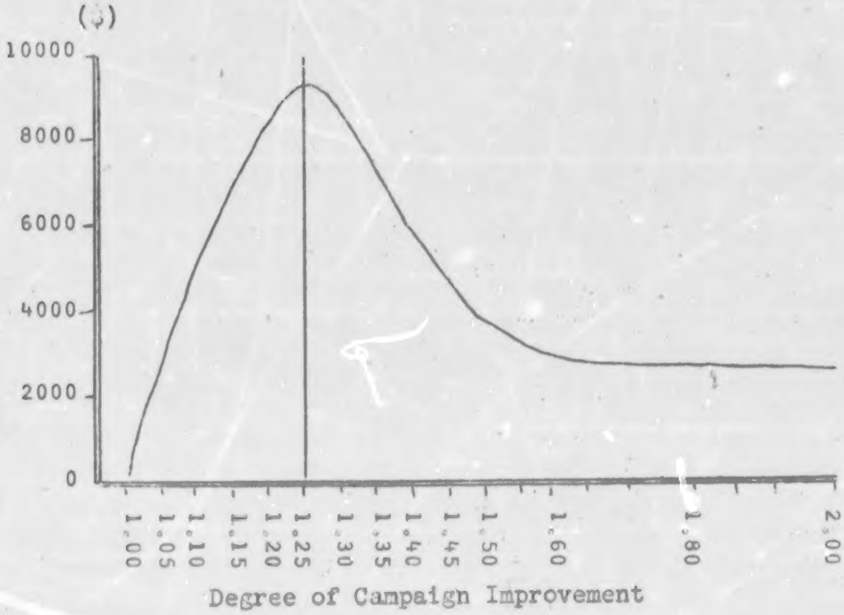
The evaluation of P can be made an exercise in which the involved decision-makers take part--advertising manager, marketing and sales managers, copy and art directors. The value of P can be viewed as the resultant of many forces which it would be impossible to enumerate and measure. Instead, we ask each participant to answer the following questions (3) -

CHART I

Return on Campaign Improvement



Incremental Return on Improvement



"We have set our hypothesis that the new advertising campaign is no better than the old. If you were asked to judge, could you pick a degree of improvement over the old campaign (i.e., a change in brand share) such that the probability of the improvement being greater than this is 1/2? (Call this value, M).

Now, can you pick a degree of improvement such that the probability of the improvement being greater than it is very low, say 1/20? (Call this value, U, for the upper limit.)

"Finally, can you pick a degree of improvement such that the probability of the improvement being less than it is also very low, say 1/20? (Call this value, L, for the lower limit.)"

TABLE VI

Expected Return of New Campaign for P = .80, .50, and .20

Relative Improvement of New Campaign	Expected Return P = .80	Expected Return P = .50	Expected Return P = .20
1.00	$465,000	$470,500	$480,000
1.05	470,590	486,500	502,410
1.10	479,980	510,000	539,970
1.15	493,750	545,450	595,100
1.20	510,160	585,500	663,190
1.25	528,620	631,550	734,480
1.30	545,990	675,100	804,110
1.35	560,580	710,800	862,370
1.40	572,470	741,200	909,930
1.45	581,730	764,400	947,020
1.50	589,050	782,650	976,200
1.60	600,300	810,650	1,021,200
1.80	621,000	862,500	1,104,000
2.00	641,000	912,500	1,184,000

The standard deviation of these estimates, σ, can then be calculated from this expression:

$$\sigma = \frac{U - L}{4}$$

The P-value can then be read from the table of the normal distribution by entering the value of Z, the standard normal deviate, calculated for the problem.

Assume, in our example, that M = 1.10
U = 1.70
L = .70

(We have already set our hypothesis that I = 1.00.)

$$\sigma = \frac{U-L}{4} = \frac{1.70 - .70}{4} = .25$$

$$Z = \frac{1.00 - M}{.25} = \frac{1.00 - 1.10}{.25} = -.40$$

The Probability that $Z = -.40$ not be exceeded is .344. This is the value of P for our problem. The payoffs are shown in Table VII, using the conditions set for the example on page 157.

TABLE VII

Expected and Incremental Return on Campaign Improvement
(P = .344)

Relative Improvement in Campaign	Expected Return E(N)	Incremental Return
.70	$463,280	-
.80	463,280	-
.90	464,428	$ 1,148
1.00	476,400	11,972
1.10	525,567	49,167
1.20	624,656	99,089
1.30	742,178	117,522
1.40	829,328	87,150
1.50	883,284	53,956
1.60	920,184	36,900
1.70	955,280	35,096
1.80	988,080	32,800

The exercise of setting limits for the relative impact of the new campaign has additional useful consequences. These group judgements can be generalized into a probability distribution of all possible values of I. This generalization can be used to answer the following questions:

1. In the long run, what is the average value of the new procedure, in terms of sales?
2. What is the risk that the new procedure, if adopted, will lead to a net loss of sales?

Table VIII contains the probability distribution of the series of I values for the example we have been reviewing and for which P = .344.

1. The long run average or the Expected value of this distribution is $560,800.
2. The probability that this procedure will yield a return of at least $500,000 is .60.

TABLE VIII

Probability Distribution of the Improvement Values (I) Based on the Group Judgments

I	Expected Return	Probability
.80 or less	$463,280	.1587
.90	464,428	.1156
1.00	476,400	.1465
1.10	525,567	.1586
1.20	624,656	.1465
1.30	742,178	.1156
1.40	829,328	.0779
1.50	883,284	.0449
1.60	920,184	.0220
1.70	955,280	.0092
1.80	968,080	.0034
1.90	957,780	.001[illegible]

Increasing the sample size to 400 (in effect, doubling the research cost to $20,000) alters the E(N) series, and yields the following:

1. The long run average, or the Expected value of this distribution is $611,350.
2. The probability that this procedure will yield a return of at least $500,000 is .75.

An alternative to increasing research expenditures is to improve the developmental procedures and bring about a situation in which the company's managers, in setting the conditions for the calculation of P would:

(a) suggest a higher M for any new campaibn to be considered; and/or
(b) suggest a narrower range within which they would anticipate that the results would fall.

For example:

Suppose that in answer to our 3 questions, the following answers were received -

Probability of improvement - beyond M is 1/2 — $M = 1.20$
Probability of improvement - greater than U - .05 — $U = 1.45$
Probability of improvement - less than U = .05 — $L = .95$

$$\sigma = (1.45 - .95)/4 = .50/4$$
$$= .125$$
$$Z = (1.00 - 1.20)/.125$$
$$= -.20/.125 = -1.6$$
$$P = P\{Z \leq -1.6\} = .0548$$

Thus, the probability, P, that the new campaign is no better than the current one is judged to be equal to .0548.

This improvement in the value of M (from 1.10 in the first version of the example to 1.20 in this one) and the reduction of σ from .25 to .125 has come as the result of an increased developmental budget.

The cost conditions are now given as

N = $500,000 (current campaign sales)
S = $100,000 (cost of switching to new campaign)
R = $ 10,000 (cost of research)
D = $ 50,000 (cost of development)

The expected return in this system is $689,000. The probability that the net return will be at least $500,000 is .88.

If we couple this improvement in D with a doubling of the Research budget, the expected return becomes $854,000, with a probability of exceeding $500,000 equal to .99.

Summarizing -

	Expected Return	Probability of Exceeding $500,000
D = $25,000		
R = $10,000	$560,800	.60
R = $20,000	611,400	.75
D = $50,000		
R = $10,000	$669,200	.88
R = $20,000	745,900	.999

Thus, increasing the Expected Return depends on the efficacy of the developmental procedures and the precision of the testing methods. The values of E(N) and Probabilities of Exceeding Breakeven found in this example are functions of the values assigned to the cost components and, as a result, should be viewed only as indications of the nature of the relationships involved rather than any assertion of general findings.

Conclusion

This has been a discussion of the nature of statistical tests and how they may be expanded to incorporate managers' subjective evaluations to permit more general assessments of the value of existing procedures for developing and testing advertising campaigns.

(1) W. A. Spurr, C.P. Bonini, Statistical Analysis for Business Decisions. Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Ill.: 1967. Chapter 12.

(2) The expected value of a probability distribution of a variable x is equal to the sum of the products of each value of the variable multiplied by the probability of its occurrence; i.e., $E(x) = \Sigma P_i X_i$, where X is a value and P the probability of its occurrence.

(3) I. Roshwalb and M. Gottlieb, The Present Value Concept in Evaluating New Products, In Product Management, Selected Readings 1960-1969, edited by D. Maynard Phelps. Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Ill., 1974.

For a description of the technique of assessing likelihoods in a somewhat different context.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE FTC'S "CORRECTIVE ADVERTISING" POLICY: NEW EMPIRICAL INSIGHTS

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One dimension of the consumerism movement in contemporary society concerns the basic right of all consumers "...to be protected against fraudulent, deceitful, or grossly misleading information, advertising, labeling, or other practices, and to be given the facts he needs to make an informed choice."[1] Within this context, the related issues of "full disclosure" and "consumer deception" have been the focus of intensive debate among corporate decision-makers advertising executives, and public policy-makers in recent years.

Full disclosure issues pertain to defining the level and value of the utility in product information used by consumers as they attempt to make informed market choices. From a public policy perspective, full disclosure regulations have included such FTC-developed remedies as (1) requirements for the substantiation of advertising claims, and (2) proposals for altering the structure and content of many types of product labels.

On the other hand, consumer deception issues involve de facto or subjective judgments that information presented in a respondent firm's advertising is fraudulent in nature or misrepresents the attributes of a given product in manner of presentation. The major prescriptive remedy for this type of market activity was first initiated in 1970 and has been called "corrective advertising."

The FTC's corrective advertising orders are designed to dispel the effects of past deceptive advertising and, as a result, diminish the competitive advantages that the respondent firm gained through the use of such deceptive ads. In essence, the alleged offender is required to provide consumers with adequate information to minimize the residual misinformation in the consumer's mind after a deceptive advertising campaign is terminated. It should be noted that corrective advertising orders must not result in punitive damages to the respondent firm--penalties that go beyond denying the firm falsely generated revenue gains.[2]

At present, only two empirical studies have been reported that have attempted to assess the effectiveness and impact of the FTC's corrective advertising policy.[3] In addition, three state-of-the-art papers have provided additional insights and conceptualizations related to the improved measurement and understanding of the corrective advertising phenomenon.[4]

This study contributes new empirical perspectives for the developing research tradition on the FTC's corrective advertising remedy by reporting findings on two newly proposed consumer response measures: (1) brand attitudes and beliefs, and (2) recall of corrective advertising content. To provide a context for this analysis, existing empirical and conceptual knowledge about corrective advertising is reviewed first. Then, the experimental findings associated with the use of the innovative measurement techniques are presented. Finally, the authors conclude their analysis with a discussion of the important factors that need to be defined and integrated if understanding about corrective advertising is to be expanded in the future.

The Present State of Knowledge About Corrective Advertising: Empirical Insights

At the present time, empirical data on the effectiveness of corrective advertising has been provided by only two published studies. In both studies, the researchers focused on investigating the effect of selected structural message variables on several levels of consumer responses.

Dyer and Kuehl[5] exposed 485 students to various forms of corrective advertising in print ads for Coppertone Suntan Lotion and radio spots for Diet Pepsi. The independent variables manipulated in the study included: (1) source of message (FTC or company), and (2) message strength (high, low, or zero statements--the directness and intensity of the disclosure of an advertising violation). It should be noted that the corrective ads used in this study were created for the experiment- neither firm had actually faced a corrective advertising order.

Hunt[6] also employed student subjects in an experimental framework to examine the effects of message explicitness (similar to Dyer and Kuehl's strength treatment) and counter contention (innoculations). As in the preceding study, Hunt's research was product-specific in that actual corrective ads for Chevron gasoline were employed as stimuli in the research.

When the results of these two efforts are compared according to the dependent variables included in the respective study designs, the following conclusions evolve:

(1) Brand Awareness

Although this variable was not utilized in Hunt's study, Dyer and Kuehl report that brand awareness increased with the use of FTC source messages.

(2) Brand Attitude

The "explicit attack" treatment in Hunt's study resulted in overall negative attitudes toward the brand, whereas a less specific "general attack" generated a slightly favorable disposition toward the brand. Dyer and Kuehl report similar findings regarding the impact of strongly phrased corrective advertising copy. In their research, the FTC source treatment in the print version decreased intention to buy compared to unaltered control messages (company source-zero strength). It should be noted that in another reported study involving counter advertising, Hunt was unable to isolate a source effect on brand attitude.[7]

(3) Advertisement Attitude

Broadcast FTC source messages were regarded as more informative and print zero and low strength treatments were rated as less offensive than their company source counterparts in Dyer and Kuehl's study. This specific topic was not examined by Hunt. The FTC, however, was regarded more favorably after exposure to corrective ads.

(4) Corporate Image

The two studies produced similar findings concerning corrective advertising's impact on a firm's image. Hunt reported poorer performance on honesty and sincerity scales after exposure to corrective advertisements. Dyer and Kuehl found that the following semantic differential scales were affected by corrective messages:

(a) high or low strength (radio) treatments produced an impression of a more careless firm; and
(b) any source-strength (radio) combination generated a perception of a more withdrawn firm.

An unexpected finding came from the print version of this study. FTC source-high strength messages led to the firm's being regarded as unscrupulous, whereas the company source-high strength treatment produced a more trustworthy image of the firm. This result tends to confirm the premonition of Engel, Kollat, and Balckwell, who stated, "The result (of corrective advertising)... may be to enhance the credibility of the advertiser in the consumers' eyes and hence increase his promotional effectiveness. This, of course, would be contrary to the result intended by the Federal Trade Commission."[8]

Summary

The two studies just reviewed suggest that alternative content and structural features of corrective ads may produce different effects on awareness, brand attitudes, and corporate images. While the general effect of alternative messages was in the direction of negative brand attitudes and poorer corporate images, some of the evidence cited suggests that corrective advertising may increase the advertiser's credibility.

In assessing the contribution of these two studies to the corrective advertising research tradition, these conclusions are apparent. First, both studies yielded factual data that encompass issues affecting present and potential FTC public policy alternatives. The second type of contribution these studies make is more general in nature. Both efforts illustrate the complexity of the communication process that is inherent in the affirmative disclosure remedy. Furthermore, the intricate message and medium factors examined in these studies suggest that remedial advertising orders could produce results that are punitive in nature--a situation that exceeds the statuatory powers of the FTC. The final conclusion related to these investigations of corrective advertising concerns the selection of variables utilized by the researchers. Unfortunately, these studies--in a manner consistent with FTC current policy decisions--emphasized such independent variables as message content and media selection. While these variables are important in the development and implementation of appropriate corrective remedies, the need to delineate valid and reliable response measures (dependent variables) was not fully recognized. As a result, the following discussion reports empirical findings that are based on recently proposed consumer response measures.

Extending Knowledge About Corrective Advertising

As noted previously, the basic objective of corrective advertising policies is to dispel the "residual effects" of deceptive advertisements. Such residual effects evolve from the cumulative exposure of consumers to questionable ad content over time. As a result, the intent of remedial advertising policies is to overcome this misinformation with prescribed levels of accurate consumer information concerning the specific deceptive claims or misrepresentations. It is critical to note that this objective does not imply that overall brand attitudes or corporate images be diminished. As a result of this legal mandate, it is imperative that advertising researchers and policy-makers investigate a variety of consumer response alternatives to ensure that FTC regulatory decisions--which, to date, have been focused on budgetary, media, and content considerations--do not exceed the nonpunitive intent of the law.

Wilkie[9] has proposed four criteria for use in assessing and selecting appropriate consumer response variables for corrective advertising. Effective consumer response variables should:

(1) follow as directly as possible from the exposure to an advertisement,
(2) reflect claims (deceptive or corrective) made in the advertisement,
(3) reflect the meaning or salience of the impact of exposure to such claims in terms of consumer injury or benefit, and
(4) offer an opportunity for precision in the remedy.[10]

When each of the dependent variables employed in the two studies cited earlier are evaluated against these criteria, all of them are inadequate on one or several grounds. For example, attention/awareness measures do not focus on claims made or on the meaning or salience of claims, or offer precision in remedy. Brand attitudes, advertisement attitudes, corporate images, and intentions to buy may be a function of many influences beyond exposure to specfic messages (e.g., experience with brand, price, word-of-mouth communication, etc. In fact, sales effect measures could be criticized on these same grounds.

Innovative Consumer Response Measures

Two potentially valuable response measures, not included in previous empirical work, offer promise in assessing the residual effects of the remedy. Recall of the corrective advertising message content is a direct result of an exposure to ads and ad claims, can be tested in a manner analogous to rating o: attribute salience or importance by recall techniques, and would appear to offer opportunity for increasing the precision of the remedy, e.g., a tally of the proportion of those exposed to the corrective ad for whom the specific remedial message has "gotten through." While recall does not account for the meaning of the remembered information, it can determine whether the message has penetrated the selective perception defenses of consumers.

Gardner, in describing what he termed a "consumer impression technique" for defining deceptive ads, has outlined a methodology that appears to be applicable for testing recall levels of corrective advertising copy.[11] In his approach,

> ...customers would be shown advertisements and then asked to state (using properly designed and controlled procedures) what they felt the advertisement was telling them. Some questions qould be quite general, other quite specific if for instance (a firm was charged with making an implied safety claim)...that was not backed up by product performance. The information gained from consumer reactions (to the corrective ad) would be compared with the actual fact and claim of the (original) advertisement to determine if the necessary qualifications are understood....[12]

A technique similar to the "consumer impression" method was employed in the further corrective advertising experimentation reported in this study.

The second response measure potentially useful as a performance measure for corrective advertising is beliefs about a brand. Wilkie suggests that the belief component of the expectancy-value attitude model should be used as the primary measurement device in evaluating the effectiveness of a corrective advertising effort.[13] In this respect, he states that (brand beliefs)

> ...represent precisely the level at which deception is presumed to occur and persist. These measures are specific to each brand attribute and reflect a consumer's expectations as to the degree that a given brand offers a particular benefit. Belief measures can incorporate both the meaning and importance of deceptive claims as received by the consumer. They are clearly "residual" in nature, yet are not necessarily a function of many factors other than advertising. Removal of mistaken (i.e., deceptively based) beliefs is clearly not punitive.[14]

In proposing the application of the Fishbein attitude model to the measurement of deception in advertisements, Gardner agrees with Wilkie by citing evidence supporting brand belief as the appropriate level of measurement for corrective advertising's performance.[15] Gardner also suggests that the overall attitude score derived from the Fishbein model is inappropriate as a measure of deception because it reflects a summation of beliefs times evaluations. It "...would be necessary to show that deception (correction) existed by examining beliefs about specific attributes and how those beliefs are evaluated."[16] Similarly, an appropriate measure of corrective advertising should reflect changes in falsely based beliefs and evaluations upon presentation of corrective information.

New Empirical Insights

As part of the authors' series of corrective advertising experiments, brand belief and recall consumer response measures for corrective advertising were examined. In the study, separate experimental sessions were conducted where subjects were shown the same corrective advertisement twice, at the beginning of the session and at the end. Only the previously discussed print FTC source treatments were utilized in these sessions because of the interesting findings they produced in earlier research. The design employed in this research was a 2 x 3 factorial experiment with two levels of the number of exposures factor (single and multiple) and three levels of message strength (zero, low, and high). Experimental subjects consisted of 140 students at a large state university.

Although one additional exposure to a corrective message within a short time interval (40 minutes) is a weak proxy for the impact of corrective advertising over time, it does provide some indication of message repetition effects. Table 1 provides a summarization of multiple exposure findings.

TABLE 1

Multiple Exposures--Analysis of Variance Summary

Dependent Variable	Significant Treatments
Brand Attitude (summated scale)	Number of Exposures[a]
Brand Belief Measurement	Number of Exposures[a]
Recall of Corrective Advertising Content	Strength[b] and Strength x Number of Exposures[b]

a. p<.100.
b. p<.05.

1. Corrective Advertising Multiple Exposures and Brand Attitude

Unexpectedly, multiple exposures to corrective ads resulted in a more favorable overall attitude toward the suntan lotion brand than the single messages. It should be noted, however, that the mean on the summated (seven-point) attitude scale for the multiple exposures treatment group was slightly below the neutral point (4.0) in the unfavorable range.

As previously stated, Wilkie has argued that brand attitudes should *not* be employed as measures of corrective advertising's effectiveness.

> Brand attitudes are overall measures of like-dislike of a brand and are too general to be attributed to exposures to specific messages... (the) measure is too aggregative for FTC to rely upon (since) they measure the consumer's net responses to previous experiences with brand usage as well as various stimuli quite distinct from advertising (e.g., price, packaging, consumer word-of-mouth, competitors' brands, etc.).[17]

In this respect, it should be recognized that many advertising strategies attempt to change either existing beliefs about a brand or product. As a result, deception can be expected to occur as a function of belief being associated with an attitude toward a brand or as a function of the evaluation of a specific belief associated with the brand.

2. Corrective Advertising Multiple Exposures and Brand Belief

The authors agree with Wilkie's conceptualization of brand belief as one appropriate response measure for corrective advertising. Accordingly, a re-analysis of experimental data was conducted using brand belief as a dependent variable. A brief discussion of the print experimental treatment for Coppertone is needed. The unaltered or control Coppertone ad (see Exhibit 1) contained the following claims:

- more people get a deeper, faster tan with Coppertone than with any other suntan lotion, and

- a special ingredient has been included in Coppertone to help keep your skin looking young.

Corrective messages for the Coppertone ads contained information stating that the firm, in fact, had not included any special new additive for moisturizing. The questionnaire administered to subjects requested an evaluation of beliefs regarding each of the following Coppertone attributes along a seven-point scale (strongly agree - strongly disagree).

(1) produces a good tan,
(2) prevents burning,
(3) high price/quality relationship, and
(4) keeps skin from "drying up" (moisturizing performance).

Thus, the corrective information was designed to remove positive beliefs about attribute (4). ANOVA tests conducted on each of the four belief ratings illustrated that a significant decrease in beliefs regarding attribute (4) occurred in the multiple exposures experiment. Research evidence regarding the significance of the number of exposures effect is presented in Table 2.

Inspection of the means for single exposures (3.70) versus multiple exposures (3.38) yielded the conclusion that multiple exposures resulted in significantly more negative evaluation of the belief regarding the moisturizing attribute. Again, it should be mentioned that all the messages except the zero strength versions provided information that directly or indirectly challenged this claim.

Two implications are apparent from the brand belief investigation. First, the data provide some indication that repeated exposures to corrective messages will increase their effectiveness. Second, experimental results indicate that a major objective of corrective advertising--counteracting residual deception--may be attainable. The fact that misinformation was countered selectively (i.e. only the belief component for the performance attribute in question was affected) implies that corrective advertising may be employed in a precise fashion. It should also be recalled that overall brand attitudes were not reduced, indicating the nonpunitive effect intended.

TABLE 2

ANOVA of Differences in Agreement-Disagreement with
Suntan Lotion's "Moisturizing" Performance
for Multiple Exposures Treatment

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Chance Occurrence
Strength	1.72	1	1.72	1.87	NS
Number of Exposures	2.72	1	2.72	2.95	p<.100
Strength x Number of Exposures	1.48	1	1.48	1.62	NS
Error	126.56	137	.92		
TOTAL	132.48	140			

3. Corrective Advertising and Recall of Remedial Content

Information gathered in the original experiment involving 485 subjects, but not reported by the authors to date, offers evidence concerning corrective advertising's capacity to overcome residual deception via the recall criterion. Corrective copy in low and high strength versions of the experimental ads included information refuting questionable claims made in previous advertisements. Corrective copy for the suntan lotions ads has been described previously. The diet soft drink radio spots included copy that contested the product's weight-reducing capability.

A stringent, partially-aided recall test was employed in this study. Similar to Gardner's "consumer impression technique," the recall device requested subjects to respond to the unstructured question, "What do you think the basic points were that information in the following ads attempted to get across?" Brands that were listed for comment included both the experimental products and several brands not treated with corrective copy. Notings of recall of corrective information were coded from the responses.

Before the recall results are presented, several points must be called to the reader's attention. First, since the two products chosen for the inclusion of corrective advertising statements have not actually been charged with FTC deceptive advertising violations, the only sources of information that could have been used as a basis for recall of disclosure data were the stimuli presented in the experiment. Second, company source-zero strength treatments had no remedial information included, so this treatment category will not appear in the results summarized in Table 3.

This table demonstrates that the experimental subjects failed the aided recall test for corrective information rather miserably. In all treatments where corrective information was spliced into regular advertisements (this was the case for each corrective message except FTC So.-High Str. where the entire ad was remedial in nature), subjects almost entirely played back copy themes and appeals rather than corrective information. The corrective copy, therefore appears to have a lower probability of retention than regular advertising appears. Recall results presented in Table 3 illustrate that, while the print remedial ads generated only slightly higher recall than the radio spots (3.1 percent versus 2.7 percent), the FTC source messages were superior to the company source version in number of notations. This later finding is comparable to the success of the FTC version on other measurements discussed earlier.

TABLE 3

Notation of Corrective Information
by Each Treatment Group

Treatment Group	Number of Notations and Number of Subjects			
	Print	Broadcast	Total	Percent Noted
FTC So. x High Str.	9/88	3/65	12/153	7.8
FTC So. x Low Str.	0/57	3/133	3/190	1.6
FTC So. x 0 Str.*	2/71	4/72	6/143	4.3
Co. So. x High Str.	0/64	0/71	0/135	0.0
Co. So. x Low Str.	0/72	1/57	1/129	0.8
Total	11/352	11/398		
Percent Noted	3.1%	2.7%		

*FTC So. x 0 Str. notations were recorded for recall of advertising substantiation information.

The recall tests conducted specify that only approximately 3 percent of the subjects in the experiment who received FTC-related information were able to recall the disclosure facts presented. The subjects, however, did a superior job of recalling commercial message themes and appeals whenever presented. This information gives an indication of the strong competition for a share of the consumer's memory that corrective advertising faces. In each session of the experiment, ten other advertisements and 20 minutes of commentary competed for the audience's attention and recognition. Special creative strategies similar to the Advertising Council's "Anti-Smoking" campaign may be required if the FTC is to improve the consumer's ability to note or play back disclosure information.

Despite the results of this experiment, recall of corrective message content should be included as one of the consumer response measures by the FTC. The variable is linked directly to exposure to a corrective ad and offers the capability of weighing the salience of corrective information versus other message factors. This later feature is especially important where only a portion of the corrective ad is devoted to remedial copy.

Summary and Conclusions

The preceding discussion reviewed the present level of knowledge about the FTC's corrective advertising policy from three viewpoints. From an empirical perspective, information regarding the (1) message content variables, (2) source effects, and (3) media selection factors were examined from the only two published studies of remedial advertising. While the array of independent variables manipulated in these two studies did result in different levels of consumer response, two problems are in these research efforts. First, it is doubtful that the FTC should have the power to determine the methods of correcting false and deceptive advertising claims. The FTC does not possess the expertise to design "corrective campaigns" involving complex message, media, and scheduling decisions. Thus, respondent firms--even in cases involving cease and desist orders--should be able to select the form of the disclosure, i.e., number of messages, strength, media, etc. Offering the respondent the ability to remedy his own deception would ensure that the FTC would no longer be compelled to establish arbitrary conditions in corrective advertising orders (e.g., duration of corrective campaign, percentage of advertising budget expended on corrective-type ads, and number of message placements). Altering the impression created by a particularly effective past campaign, for example, may involve more placements over time than the original creative program. Deception in other campaigns may be countered effectively with a few widely distributed messages. The FTC would be expected to have little knowledge regarding these and similar "insider" circumstances with which to make a priori decisions on budget, insertions, and so forth. As a consequence, the respondent firm's management should have discretion over the technical decisions associated with implementing remedial advertising. Only in this fashion can the creative expertise and research knowledge of the defendant firm and agency be used to correct past claims in an efficient manner.

A second problem with the two studies is that inadequate attention was devoted to the selection of appropriate consumer response measures. The inherent weakness of awareness/attention, attitudes, and corporate images as response variables were presented in this discussion. Two recently proposed measures--brand belief and recall of corrective ad content--were introduced. Experimental evidence was presented in support of both constructs. The two variables appear to have the capability of assessing whether residual deception has been removed.

This second area suggests a more appropriate role for the FTC than prescribing complex communication standards. The Commission would require a "before" survey of consumers to determine the extent of deception (e.g., falsely based beliefs, recall of deceptive content). This initial survey would aid in the determination of whether corrective advertising is necessary in the particular case. If appropriate, the Commission would specify that brand beliefs for the attribute(s) in question be altered and that sufficient recall of corrective ad content be attained within an appropriate time period. Finally, the FTC would require firms to submit 'after' survey evidence that demonstrates that a representative sample of consumers has been exposed to adequate corrective information and that residual deception has been countered. The FTC, in this interpretation, would place great emphasis on valid and reliable recall and belief measurement. To avoid conflict over research results, an independent marketing research firm (not associated with the respondent) might be selected to perform the before and after studies.

In the event that a respondent's corrective ad program fails to effect the required brand belief and recall changes within a reasonable time period, the FTC might elect to require the use of message variables discussed in earlier research, such as FTC source or high strength versions. Previous research illustrated that FTC source and high strength messages were successful in attracting greater attention and recall. Although these corrective advertising tactics may involve some punitive consequences to the firm, cases of flagrant deception that involve products suggesting immediate danger to consumers' health or safety may warrant their use.

It is the task of advertisers and market and advertising researchers to build a research tradition in the phenomenon of corrective advertising for three reasons. First, since much advertising research is directed currently toward advertising effectiveness studies, similar techniques could be applied to the study of corrective advertising. Advertising effectiveness research should be enlarged to encompass the study of the effectiveness of corrective advertising and other regulatory devices.

Second, active research by the advertising industry and advertisers would provide empirical evidence for the FTC that could be used in its future policy development. Since the Commission currently lacks the personnel and funding to conduct intensive studies of corrective advertising, such informational inputs would assist the FTC in developing policies that enhance consumer information without destroying corporate credibility.

Third, additional research is needed to overcome the limitations inherent in the studies discussed in this paper. These experiments have been cross-sectional so no inferences could be drawn concerning the differences between short- and long-term effects of corrective advertising in reducing residual misinformation. Only limited evidence was cited concerning repetition effects of remedial messages. Television presentation of the treatments was not employed although audiovisual stimuli were used. It would also be purposeful to investigate the impact of consumers' prior brand attitudes, experience with the brand, attitudes toward advertising in general, and other variables that might alter corrective advertising's effect upon purchase inclination. Pretesting corrective advertisements with these considerations in mind might lead to a form of disclosure optimal to the consumer, the company, and the FTC.

Finally, in recent years, it has been suggested that increasing emphasis should be placed on integrating marketing concepts, techniques, and research findings into public policy decision-making processes. Unfortunately, it is difficult to (1) synthesize appropriate concepts and findings in a systematic manner, or (2) relate such information to policy-making processes unless some type of model is used to place such issues into perspective.

Such a situation appears to be developing with respect to the corrective advertising remedy of the FTC. Academicians and practitioners have begun to conduct experimental and cross-sectional studies on the remedial remedy utilizing a variety of independent and dependent variables. In addition, informed contributors are beginning to develop innovative, hypothetical conceptualizations of the complex communication process that characterizes corrective advertising. Selected consumer behavior experts have participated in FTC-sponsored advisory groups and in FTC-conducted hearings. While these types of activities have resulted in varying levels of impact to date, it appears that greater impact in the future will evolve only if such contributions are presented in an integrated, systematic framework that accurately presents the existing state of knowledge. This challenge--the development of evaluative models for marketing/public policy interfaces--represents a major requirement for the continued development of a viable public policy research tradition in marketing.

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ADVERTISING BUDGET ALLOCATION MODELS: A NEW PERSPECTIVE

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Introduction

The determination of a proper method for allocating advertising dollars is one of the few areas in advertising that substantial progress has not been made. Given that the advertising expenditures of all United States companies are nearly equal to one half of the reported net income of these companies, the serious need for a workable method to properly allocate these expenditures is readily apparent. A recent study by Richard Kelly examined this problem and emphasized the need for logical criteria for allocating funds between product groups and individual products.[14] The position of the authors of this paper is that the traditional heuristic methods of appropriating advertising funds and the more recent mathematical approaches to appropriating advertising funds can be improved upon by including attitude change as an additional criteria.

Heuristic Allocation Models

Industry has traditionally approached the allocation problem by developing heuristic models based upon such traditional methods as the task approach, subjective budgeting and by fixed guidelines. The allocating by fixed guidelines is usually broken down into three sub-categories, percent of sales, so much per unit, and "competitive parity."[14] Of the three major approaches the "task method" is preferred by most practitioners because it attempts to assign dollars to advertising in proportion to the tasks or objectives assigned to advertising. The "task method" supposedly is free from any arbitrary influence such as a "budget ceiling."

Fulmer has suggested that the traditional method of allocating advertising dollars be modified by making adjustments based on the product or brands degree of strength in various market areas.[11] The contention is that in any allocation model a distinction must be made between "sustaining dollars" and "development dollars" and that a portion of the failure of traditional allocation models is due to the lack of this distinction being made. Schaffir and Orr developed an allocation model that is based on past information dealing with each brand's preceding year's experience as to sales, profits, and expenditures.[21]

The various heuristic approaches such as budgeting on fixed guidelines, task method and competitive parity all have underlying criteria that is subject to question. The fixed guideline model whether it be percentage of sales, fixed sum per unit, percentage of profits or any other arbitrary fixed sum [illegible] an admission that sales determine advertising and not vice-versa. It also assumes that business conditions do not vary from year to year. Subjective allocation such as "competitive parity" appears to have very little underlying criteria other than the competitor knows what is right and we shall try to match him.

The task method or objective method of allocating advertising dollars is a response to those who use the fixed guideline approaches. The task method acknowledges that sales are determined by advertising. The underlying criteria for this method seems to be that the information required to adequately define the task and how to accomplish it, is known precisely. That is, that the relationship between advertising and sales has been well established and that a successful prediction of what specific expenditures will accomplish can be made.

Mathematical Allocation Models

Research in academics has produced a more mathematical approach to the allocation problem. Kuehn developed a model based on brand loyalty for use in a competitive market share duopoly.[16] Friedman[10] and Mills[18] applied game theory to the allocation problem. Jastram[13] Nerlove and Arrow[19] applied the concept of distributed lagas, and Telsar[24] and Palda[20] have empirically tested these models with varying results. Simon developed an allocation model based upon the distributed lags concept and built into it the assumption that the effect of advertising diminishes at a constant rate from period to period.[23] Beckwith conducted a study aimed at measuring the effect upon sales to decision variables which included the total advertising expenditure for a firm's brands, allocation of advertising monies between brands, introduction of new brands, and discontinuance of advertising for existing brands.[5]

Most of the published mathematical allocation models utilize the concept of optimization as the underlying criteria. There are two basic types of mathematical models--those that utilize game theory[10] and operations research techniques utilizing a marginalist theme[18] and those allocation models that utilize the distributed lags concept.[13] However, the model developed by Kuehn is applicable only in a competitive market share duopoly and assumes that one can judge the effectiveness of competitor's advertising. It also assumes that competitors will not reduce advertising expenditures to raise industry profits. Friedman's game theory allocation model assumes two competitors with fixed advertising budgets and that sales are only influenced by advertising. Friedman's and Mills' models are not truly allocation models because they start with a fixed allocation rather than building towards the appropriate allocation.

Simon's model for determining advertising appropriations is based on profit maximization using a distributed lag model. However, a major assumption of his model is that sales caused by advertising can be partitioned from sales caused by other factors.[23] This may be possible for some product classes such as cigarettes, but for most of the products being advertised, except for mail order advertisers, this possibility is remote.

In summary, the underlying criteria for heuristic models appears to be that one can establish a definite relationship between advertising expenditure and sales results. The mathematical models criteria appears to be profit maximization, advertisers operating in perfectly competitive markets, and a past relationship between advertising expenditures and sales results. The assumptions of the criteria are certainly open to question and improvement.

Attitudinal Change as a Criterion in Allocation Models

Consumer behavior models have included consumer perceptions and preferences to behavior since their inception. However, it is only recently that suggestions have been made that they be included in advertising allocation models.[15,25] Amstrutz's model that posits consumers move through four stages in the purchase decision--development of a need, decision to shop, purchase, and post purchase is a typical consumer behavior model.[2] He suggests that while an individual moves through these stages that he is subject to attitude modification which can affect his purchase decision. Boyd, Ray and Strong have suggested that rather than assume that a firm's advertising expenditure is to affect sales, maximize profits or to have an effect on a hierarchy[7] that perhaps one of the criteria for allocating advertising funds is "to assume that advertising can maintain or shift attitudes with respect to salient product characteristics and their ratings. If such can be accomplished, it will lead to preference which affects sales and profits.[7]

There are examples of where attitude change is playing an important role in determining what advertising is to accomplish. General Motors has used attitudes as a measurement of the effectiveness of its advertising program for years. Gail Smith of General Motors considers that attitudes and/or knowledge affect behavior and that this is one of the three basic assumptions of advertising. Banks found a "direct and close relationship between existing levels of preference for a brand and their relative purchase by housewives.[4] Achenbaum reported that the more favorable the attitude toward a product, the higher the incidence of usage; the less favorable people are toward a product, the more likely they are to stop using it.[1] Achenbaum has also analyzed how attitudes on specific attributes relate to the general attitude toward a brand and has concluded that "no one set of specific attitudes is universally applicable to all products. Each product category has its own unique set of factors by which people evaluate the desirability of the product."[1]

Dissent about Attitudes Effectiveness

Not everyone agrees that attitudes are successful in predicting behavior and as a measurement of the effectiveness of advertising. Haskins examined seventeen studies reported in psychological abstracts (1954-1963) and in thirteen of the studies there were no conclusive relationships established between attitudes and behavior.[12] Festinger also analyzed studies concerning attitudes and behavior and concluded that "we cannot glibly assume a relationship between attitude change and behavior.[8] Rokeach has concluded that "attitude toward the object and one's attitude toward the situation in which the object is encountered can be different."[21]

In general there has been resistance to including attitudinal data in allocation models because of the lack of proof as to how attitudes affect behavior. The argument has a "chicken or the egg first" flavor. Many believe that behavior modification results in attitude change while others believe attitude change precedes behavior modification.[17] There have also been arguments against the inclusion of attitude data due to the lack of knowledge about the structure of attitudes and how the component parts of an attitude are related. In other words, many people in the past and at present believe that the inclusion of attitudinal data in the budget is not implementable.

Attitude Data in Allocation Models

As early as 1961 advertisers were being urged to include attitudinal data in their allocation models. Frey in his paper delivered before the Forty-Fourth AMA Conference set forth an allocation model that has as its criteria for allocating advertising funds attitudinal change. His basic model is as follows:

1. Determine the dollar sales goal for the period ahead.
2. Identify the potential market and delineate its segments--whose awareness and favorable attitudes are worth striving for.
3. Measure the present level of unawareness, awareness, favorable attitudes and purchasing among the individuals in these segments.
4. Calculate any increase in awareness and favorable attitude necessary to produce the indicated sales increase.
5. Decide the number of effective message deliveries--conscious impressions necessary to produce the increase in awareness and attitudes
6. Calculate the number of actual message exposures necessary to produce the desired quantity of effective message deliveries, or conscious impressions.
7. Calculate the number of potential message exposures necessary to produce the desired actual exposures.
8. Decide which media and which schedules in the media procure the desired total number of potential messages at the lowest cost.
9. This cost is the advertising appropriation.[9]

Until recently this allocation model has been largely ignored. Many advertisers and academicians believe that it is impossible to establish a relationship between conscious impressions, awareness, favorable attitudes and purchasing behavior. Perhaps part of the lack of confidence in attitudes as predictors of behavior is due to our lack of understanding about the structure of attitudes and the emphasis that has been placed on treating attitudes as single units rather than as complex structures. In the past emphasis has been placed on establishing a relationship between an attitude and a behavioral act. Presently researchers are concentrating on the intervening process between stimuli and the response tendency. Bither and Miller's study established that there are intervening variables between the stimulus and the response tendency.[6] Their research successfully isolated two distinct and measurable components of an attitude towards a brand. The research suggests that a brand attitude can be modified by changing a component(s) of the attitude. Two recent studies tend to support the findings of Bither and Miller which in turn support the Frey allocation model based on attitudes.

Klippel and Bither[15] in a study predicted "that a positive change in attitude toward an advertised product is inversely related to the individual's original attitude. And that when group attributes were averaged, the product with the lowest mean attitude index would exhibit greatest positive change when exposed to an ad." Both of these predictions were supported by their findings.

Winter, in a recent study of 453 housewives, hypothesized that:

1. Advertising exposure will have a favorable affect on attitude change.
2. Individuals for whom the advertising advocates the greatest change (i.e., the group with the most unfavorable initial attitude) will respond with the most favorable attitude change.
3. Individuals with high brand familiarity will experience less favorable attitude change than individuals with low brand familiarity.
4. Each additional exposure will have a decreasing effect on favorable attitude change.
5. Brand familiarity is positively related to the number of previous exposures.

"The results of the experiment support the hypothesis that attitude change resulting from exposure is a function of the individual's attitude prior to exposure, the number of previous exposures, and brand familiarity."[24]

The Winter study and the Klippel-Bither study were similar in two respects. Both studies found that the groups experiencing the greatest favorable attitude change were those with the most unfavorable prior attitude. In addition, the studies found that the exposure effect was only significant for the group with the most unfavorable prior attitude. In addition the Winter study found that the favorable response to advertising over the entire test period decreased significantly with each additional exposure.

Summary and Conclusions

It is the position of the authors that heuristic and mathematical advertising allocation models do have some merit. The heuristic models are appropriate when a firm engages primarily in main-order advertising or when a firm can establish a direct relationship between advertising expenditures and sales. Mathematical allocation models are appropriate when they are used in the competitive market structures they are designed for and if profit maximization is the goal in determing the advertising appropriation. However, it is the position of the authors that both types of models can be improved upon if attitudinal data is included as input into the models. The recent research into the structure of attitudes has demonstrated that the components of an attitude can be measured and that by modifying the components, the overall attitude towards an object can also be modified. Past research has to some extent established that the more favorable an individual's attitude towards a product is, the greater the tendency is that it will result in some form of favorable behavior. This favorable behavior is also a function of whether or not the object is compatible with an individual's value system, particular needs and economic means to accomplish the behavior.

The Klippel-Bither and Winter studies have lent support to the Frey attitudinal allocation model and brought interesting questions to mind. Should we concentrate our advertising efforts on changing those consumers with unfavorable attitudes rather than those with favorable attitudes? In terms of return on advertising dollars, the answer appears to be yes. Have we begun to determine how much is enough advertising? Again, depending on the attitudes of the consumers the messages are aimed at, yes. Is the model advocated by Frey implementable? Yes. Can the Frey attitudinal model really defended if we cannot establish a direct relationship between conscious impressions, favorable attitudes and purchasing behavior? Yes, because some advertisers have established this relationship for their products depending on the level of awareness and attitudes. If there is a relationship between attitudes and purchase behavior and since most consumers have favorable attitudes towards the products they purchase, perhaps the goal of an advertising appropriation should be changed from sales to favorable attitude change.

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AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF COMMERCIAL MESSAGE CREDIBILITY

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Introduction

This paper reports on the first stage of an ongoing research project designed to establish and validate a pilot model to explore the relationship and interaction between media credibility and commercial message credibility. The research was performed by the authors and supported by a grant from Marketing Communications Consultants International.

Selection of effective media vehicles to convey an advertising message to a target population involves cost per thousand estimates adjusted by an agency's "experienced judgment" about the impact of other relevant factors. Utilization of computer models in media selection does not alter the situation since media weights in such models are still based on qualitative judgments. The present study examines credibility as one variable which may help make the selection process more operational and less qualitative.

In accounting for experienced judgment, such factors as sociodemographic and attitudinal characteristics of the target population, the editorial climate of each media, the technical qualities of the vehicles, the fit between product and vehicle, and the competitive and social contest within which media will be viewed are used to adjust simple cost-per-thousand ranking of vehicles (Gensch, 1970). These factors fall into two groups--those that are attributes of the stimulus viewed and those that are attributes of the viewer or the viewing situation. In this study credibility is conceptualized in a manner similar to that of Berlo, Lemert, and Mertz (1969) as an evaluation by the viewer of the perceived stimulus deriving from attributes of the viewer, attributes of the stimulus, and especially from the interaction of these various attributes.

There is ample evidence that vehicle source effects exist such that different media will vary in credibility having differential effects upon the same audience with the same ads (Aaker and Brown, 1962; Gensch, 1970; Jacobson, 1969). It is also becoming clear that the effects of an advertising stimulus must be differentiated into effects from the media utilized, from the sponsoring company or its spokesman, and from the particular product being advertised in the commercial message. It is further evident that there are complex interactions among media effects, company effects, and product effects. In examining the credibility of an advertising stimulus it appears important to assess the impact of these various facets of the stimulus and their interactions.

Credibility is typically defined in terms of expertness and trustworthiness components. Yet recent studies that investigated the dimensionality of credibility seem to suggest that there may be additional components worthy of separate consideration. Berlo, Lemert, and Mertz (1969) found three independent dimensions of Safety, Qualification, and Dynamism. Authenticity, Objectivity, and Dynamism were the factor labels chosen by Jacobson (1969) to describe dimensions found in his study. While these dimensions in the separate studies are similar there are important differences. Another look at the dimensionality of credibility seems warranted.

Research Design

The pilot model includes three products and eight different media. The products were selected as representative of three widely dissimilar characteristics:

1. Dynamic product:	Ford Pinto
2. Static product:	Colgate Toothpaste
3. Service:	Prudential Insurance

The eight media fall into four sub-categories:

Audio-Visual
1. Network television

Audio
2. Network radio

Print media: Magazines
3. Time
4. Good Housekeeping
5. Playboy

Print media: Newspapers
6. New York Times
7. New York Daily News
8. Knickerbocker News (Albany)

For testing purposes, in terms of our pilot model sign, the concept of credibility was divided into four potential components or dimensions:

1. Reliability
2. Trustworthiness
3. Believability
4. Plausibility

A modified Likert Scale range from very (unreliable) to very (reliable) etc. was utilized and seven items were written for each of the above dimensions of credibility. There was one for media, one for each of the three products in general terms, and one for each product directed at specific claims.

The following ad campaigns were made available to us:

1. _Colgate Tooth Toughener Campaign_ for TV, radio, and magazines,
2. _Prudential Insurance Company's "Piece of the Rock" Campaign_ for TV, magazines and newspapers, and
3. _Pinto Carefree Car Campaign_ for TV, magazines and newspapers.

It was necessary to construct audio tapes for the Prudential and Pinto campaigns. This was subcontracted to a professional group with many years of experience in radio broadcasting. The tapes carefully followed the content of the printed media messages and the television commercials and were of highest professional quality.

The newspaper ad for Colgate was subcontracted to a local newspaper which filmed the magazine ad and printed it in black and white on newsprint.

For this pilot study the population consisted of resident students at the State University of New York at Albany. The reasons for this choice are mostly obvious; access to the students was quick and relatively simple, the level of educational background is relatively consistent across a fairly narrow demographic range, and the cooperation of the students in this kind of experimental venture was expected to be quite high.

From this population the sample of eighty respondents was carefully and randomly drawn to constitute a fair sample of SUNY-Albany resident students. Since results were to be analyzed by sex, the sample was equally divided into males and females. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of eight groups (one for each media) and exposed to the three commercial messages in that media. The students were reimbursed for the two-hour session.

Definition and Determination of Credibility Scores

In the analysis of the results, it became apparent that responses on three of the subcomponents of credibility tended to cluster while the fourth, plausibility, appeared to be inversely related. The authors chose to define the credibility score as the average of the scores for the following:

1. Reliability,
2. Trustworthiness, and
3. Believability.

Further analysis indicated that this Credibility Score was actually inversely related to the Plausibility score. (The correlation coefficient of -.846 was significant at the .01 level.)

Having defined the credibility score as the average of the subfactors Reliability, Trustworthiness, and Believability and having isolated Plausibility as being inversely correlated to the major factors of credibility, the next step was the determination of the actual credibility scores. A credibility score then, as defined above, was determined for each of the media in the following fashion:

1. Each respondent's _Credibility Score_ for the media in question was calculated as described in the section immediately above.

2. The Media Credibility Score was obtained by averaging the scores for ten respondents. These are shown in the "all respondents column" of Table 1.
3. Next Media Credibility Scores by sex were determined based upon five male or five female respondents. These are shown in the corresponding columns of Table 1.

TABLE 1

Media Credibility Scores

	Males	Females	All Respondents
Good Housekeeping	3.60	3.93	3.77
Playboy	3.80	3.33	3.57
Time	3.80	4.13	3.97
New York Daily News	3.20	3.00	3.10
Knickerbocker News	3.53	3.67	3.60
New York Times	4.20	4.33	4.27
Radio	3.27	3.73	3.50
Television	2.80	2.60	2.70
Average	3.52	3.59	3.56

Commercial Message Credibility Scores (all respondents) were next determined for a given product and media by the following:

1. Averaging six question scores for each respondent; two on reliability, two on trustworthiness, and two on believability.
2. Then averaging these scores for the ten respondents (e.g., the credibility score of the Pinto message embedded in Good Housekeeping was the average of 3 x 2 x 10 = 60). These credibility scores are shown for each of the three products in Table 2.
3. Once again scores were classified by sex. Each such score is based upon an average of 3 x 2 x 5 = 30 question scores. These Commercial Message Credibility scores are shown in Table 3 for males and Table 4 for females.

The Commercial Message Credibility Score for all tested messages in a particular media was also determined by the following process:

1. Averaging the credibility scores for the three products in that media (e.g., please refer to Table 2 for the following data. Row 2 of Table 2 (Playboy) has the following column values, Pinto 2.46, Colgate 2.78, and Prudential 3.42. The summation of these three values equals 8.66. Thus, the Commercial Message Credibility scores for Playboy equals this summated value, 8.66, divided by three which equals 2.89. This value, 2.89, may be found under the column labeled all messages and the row marked Playboy).

TABLE 2

Commercial Message Credibility Scores

		Pinto	Colgate	Prudential	All Messages
Good Housekeeping:	All Respondents	3.06	3.46	3.44	3.32
	Males Only	2.86	3.83	3.36	3.35
	Females Only	3.27	3.10	3.53	3.30
Playboy:	All Respondents	2.46	2.78	3.42	2.89
	Males Only	2.80	2.40	3.30	2.83
	Females Only	2.13	3.16	3.53	2.94
Time:	All Respondents	2.95	2.82	2.65	2.81
	Males Only	2.87	2.47	2.36	2.57
	Females Only	3.03	3.16	2.93	3.04
New York Daily News:	All Respondents	2.98	3.12	3.58	3.23
	Males Only	2.63	3.00	3.53	3.05
	Females Only	3.33	3.23	3.63	3.40
Knickerbocker News:	All Respondents	2.48	3.25	2.81	2.85
	Males Only	2.37	2.93	2.27	2.52
	Females Only	2.60	3.57	3.37	3.18
New York Times:	All Respondents	3.00	2.93	2.51	2.81
	Males Only	3.27	2.80	3.03	3.03
	Females Only	2.74	3.06	2.00	2.60
Radio:	All Respondents	3.08	2.65	2.52	2.75
	Males Only	3.43	2.40	2.27	2.70
	Females Only	2.73	2.90	2.77	2.80
Television:	All Respondents	2.88	2.48	2.75	2.70
	Males Only	3.07	2.27	2.53	2.62
	Females Only	2.70	2.70	2.97	2.7[illegible]
Averages:	All Respondents	2.86	2.94	2.96	2.92
	Males Only	2.91	2.76	2.83	2.83
	Females Only	2.81	3.11	3.09	3.00

2. Each such score is based upon the averaging of 60 x 3 = 180 question scores.
3. These scores are shown for each of the eight media in the "all messages" column of Table 2, All Respondents.
4. Again, since the data were subdivided by sex, the "all messages" column of Table 2, Males Only and Females Only, present the Commercial Message Credibility Scores for males and females separately. Each of these scores were based upon the averaging of ninety question scores.

Each of the eighty subjects were asked to rank the eight media. The overall average rank was determined for each and these in turn were rank ordered. As shown in Table 3 the New York Times ranked first (average rank of 2.02) while the New York Daily News ranked eighth (average rank of 6.57). Similar procedures were followed after the data were sub-divided by sex.

TABLE 3

Subject's Direct Ranking of Media

Media	Males		Females		All Respondents	
	Average	Rank	Average	Rank	Average	Rank
Good Housekeeping	5.40	6	5.35	5	5.37	6
Playboy	4.37	5	5.60	6	4.99	5
Time	3.00	2	3.00	2	3.00	2
New York Daily News	6.60	8	6.55	8	6.57	8
Knickerbocker News	6.02	7	5.90	7	5.96	7
New York Times	2.15	1	1.90	1	2.02	1
Radio	4.07	3	3.82	4	3.95	3
Television	4.22	4	3.77	3	4.00	4

Analysis

Table 4 presents a comparative analysis of three sets of rankings obtained from the following sources:

1. Subject's direct ranking of media
2. Media Credibility scores (Table 1)
3. Commercial Message Credibility scores (Table 2, All Respondents)

From this data the following observations can be made. Slight (but not significant) positive correlations were observed between Subject's direct ranking and Media Credibility and between Media Credibility and Commercial Message Credibility. A substantial negative correlation (significant at approximately the 0.10 level) was observed between Subject's direct ranking and Commercial Message Credibility.

A similar analysis was performed after the data was divided into subsets by sex. The following were noted:

1. For males none of the correlations were significant (at the 0.10 level). A slight negative correlation was observed between Subject's direct ranking and Commercial Message Credibility.
2. For females a substantial negative correlation (significant at the 0.05 level) exists between Subject's direct ranking and Commercial Message Credibility.
3. At best, the Subject's direct ranking of overall credibility is unrelated to Commercial Message Credibility and for females, at least, the two measures appear to be inversely related.

TABLE 4

Comparative Analysis of Credibility Rankings
(All Respondents)

Media	Subject's Direct Ranking	Media Credibility Scores	Commercial Message Credibility Scores
Good Housekeeping	6	3	1
Playboy	5	5	3
Time	2	8	6
New York Daily News	8	7	2
Knickerbocker News	7	4	4
New York Times	1	1	5
Radio	3	6	7
Television	4	8	8

In conclusion, consider McLuhan's well-known and often-quoted conjecture, "The media is the message." Although it would, of course, be invalid for us to attempt to generally refute this thesis based on our present work, it is interesting to note that in this study which used "commercials" rather than "news" as the message, a substantial inverse correlation exists between media and message. If it had been true that "The media is the message," then one would have expected positive correlation to exist between Media Credibility and the Commercial Message Credibility Scores for the three products.

When the data were analyzed by product, in all three cases the correlation coefficient was too small to be considered significant. In fact the correlation coefficient for the Media/Prudential interaction was negative. Certainly there was no support for "The media is the message" hypothesis in these data.

Furthermore, when the data was subdivided by sex and the rank correlations calculated, none of them came close to supporting the hypothesis. It is interesting to note that the only correlation coefficient that even approached significance was a negative coefficient for females for the Media/Prudential interaction.

In this study, neither high nor low media credibility were transferrable. Conversely and equally interesting as a major finding was that a relatively high credibility product (Prudential) achieved its highest level of credibility when housed in a low credibility media (The New York Daily News) and its lowest credibility in the New York Times. If additional research continues to support these data, the implications for media selection seem self-evident.

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THE PERCEIVED CREDIBILITY OF ADVERTISEMENTS AND OTHER CHANNELS OF INFORMATION AMONG WOMEN

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INTRODUCTION

The literature concerning source credibility and its effects on the communications process dates back to the time of the ancient Greeks. More recently, however, in their comprehensive theory of buyer behavior, Howard and Sheth indicate that credibility, though topic or product bound, is perhaps the most important characteristic of a source of information.[1] Furthermore, experimental findings support the proposition that credible sources of information produce significantly greater message acceptance and response than their incredible counterparts.[2] For the most part, these experiments utilized the same basic research approach. First two or more groups of subjects were selected at random and the investigators determined that there were no apparent differences between the groups with respect to their attitudes on a given topic. Each group was then exposed to the same information concerning the topic, with the only difference being the stated source of the message. The group attitudes on the topic were then tested again and any measurable differences were attributed to the differing credibility of the two sources.

However, in marketing, the source of a communication is not so easily identifiable, and consumers are sometimes apt to identify the source of a communication as the channel or media rather than the person or firm originating the message. This lack of consumer distinction between the source and the channel is particularly likely to occur, since certain media such as consumer magazines try to set themselves up as sources through the use of seals of approval and since companies frequently try to establish their sales personnel as sources.[3] Yet, there is not an existing study that seems to directly confront the issue of the relative credibility of the major channels of product information likely to be encountered by the consuming public.

In light of this shortcoming, it is the purpose of this study to empirically investigate the perceived credibility of the four major channels of information available to consumers.

Channels

Communication channels can be classified as either market-dominated or consumer-dominated depending on whether or not the marketer exercises direct control over their contents. In addition, these channels can be further classified as personal or impersonal based on the nature of their relationship to the consumer. For the purpose of this study, both of these variables were utilized and the channels shown in Figure 1 were selected.

FIGURE 1

Classification of the Major Channels of Consumer Information

	Market-Dominated	Consumer-Dominated
Personal	SALESMAN	FRIEND
Impersonal	ADVERTISEMENT	SEAL OR CERTIFICATION

Credibility

Definition of the credibility concept varies in the published literature. Hovland, Janis and Kelly defined two components, competence and trustworthiness with the latter apparently encompassing some dimension of goodwill or intentions.[4] However, Giffin asserts that there are logical and methodological reasons for considering these factors separately. Based on a comprehensive review of existing literature, Giffin concluded that source credibility appeared to be based on the listener's perceptions of the following characteristics of the speaker: expertise, credibility, intentions, dynamism, and personal attraction.[5] Rarick, on the other hand, distinguishes between the affective and cognitive components of credibility, and included trustworthiness and reliability under the former, and power, prestige, and competence under the latter.[6] Bauer extended these findings and identified competence and trust as the key components when the consumer is playing the "problem-solving game," i.e., choosing the best purchase alternatives.[7]

Based on these findings and considering the nature of the channels being investigated, credibility was operationally defined in this study as the consumer's perception of the trustworthiness, expertise, and impartiality of each information channel.

METHODOLOGY

The data for use in evaluating the relative credibility of the four channels was collected as part of a larger study of consumer information processing.[8] A questionnaire consisting of 16 items similar to the one shown below was used to measure the trustworthiness, expertise, and impartiality of each information channel concerning the purchase of four common household products.

Example: Indicate below what you think of an ADVERTISEMENT as an information, source concerning the purchase of a HOUSEHOLD CLEANER.

Trustworthy ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___ Untrustworthy
Expert ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___ Inexpert
Impartial ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___ Partial

This same question was repeated for all four channels and for the following four household products: an appliance, a steak, children's clothing, and a household cleaner. These products were selected for inclusion with the objective of obtaining a representative cross section of common household products purchased by women. The relative position of each of the 16 questions was rotated over the course of the data collection period in order to equalize the effects of any fatigue or order bias.

The entire questionnaire was completed by 198 adult female consumers who were drawn from a number of civic and religious organizations in Northern Delaware.

RESULTS

The data for each of the credibility dimensions was then analyzed across product categories by means of a two-way analysis of variance. As shown in Table 1 the results of this analysis indicates that there are significant differences in the credibility ratings of the four channels on all three dimensions. However, there is no significant difference between products, and only one dimension (expertise) where any significant interaction effect was observed.

TABLE 1

Analysis of Variance: Credibility Measures

Sources	d.f.	Mean Squares	F-ratio
Trustworthiness			
Between Channels	3	1853.24	513.06[a]
Between Products	3	20.04	5.55
Products x Channels	9	49.91	4.61
Error	3152	3795.18	
Expertise			
Between Channels	3	773.34	232.89[a]
Between Products	3	14.24	3.41
Products x Channels	9	152.94	12.20[b]
Error	3152	4391.16	
Impartiality			
Between Channels	3	3154.55	505.76[a]
Between Products	3	29.18	4.68
Products x Channels	9	73.50	3.93
Error	3152	9810.50	

[a] Significant at .01 level.
[b] Significant at .05 level.

In order to further examine the differences between each individual pair of means, these means were arranged in decending order and tested for significance by means of the least significant difference method.[9] These results are displayed in Tables 2, 3, and 4. In each Table, the difference between the three ordered pairs of means is significant at the .05 level. However, the order of the ranking is different for the trustworthiness dimension than for the expertise and impartiality dimensions.

TABLE 2

Ranked Comparison of Trustworthiness Means

Information Channels	Trustworthiness Mean	Difference
Friend	1.82	
Seal of Approval	1.99	.17[a]
Salesman	3.21	1.22[a]
Advertisement	3.60	.39[a]

[a] Significant at .01 level: LSD = .142.

TABLE 3

Ranked Comparison of Expertise Means

Information Channels	Expertise Mean	Difference
Seal of Approval	2.25	
Friend	3.08	.83[a]
Salesman	3.41	.33[a]
Advertisement	3.74	.33[a]

[a] Significant at .01 level: LSD = .153.

TABLE 4

Ranked Comparison of Impartiality Means

Information Channels	Impartiality Mean	Difference
Seal of Approval	2.73	
Friend	2.89	.16[b]
Salesman	4.52	1.63[a]
Advertisement	5.02	.50[a]

[a] Significant at .01 level: LSD = .187.
[b] Significant at .05 level: LSD = .142.

In the case of the trustworthiness dimension (Table 2) the subjects rated a friend highest followed closely by a seal of approval. These two consumer-dominated channels were then followed by a salesman and an advertisement in that order. It is further significant to note that the difference between the market-dominated channels and the consumer-dominated channels was especially large.

When the credibility dimensions of expertise and impartiality are considered (Tables 3 and 4), the order of the two consumer-dominated channels is reversed with seals of approval being rated the highest on both dimensions. The two market-dominated channels are rated significantly lower. It should be noted, moreover, that seals of approval were rated considerably more expert than all three other channels.

Examination of the individual expertise means for the various channels across product categories suggests that the significant interaction reported in Table 1 would appear to be primarily as a result of the especially high perceived expertise of a salesman (meat clerks) for the product category steak.

DISCUSSION

The overall finding that consumer-dominated channels of product information are more credible than their market-dominated counterparts regardless of the dimension used is quite consistent with general expectations and is significant only in that they represent empirical support for these beliefs. Generally, these findings would appear supportive of existing points of view regarding the relative importance and influence of salesmen, advertisements, and friends on purchase behavior. The superior credibility of salesmen to advertisements across all dimensions measured would appear to indicate that among market-dominated channels, personal selling is more influential. It would seem that the face to face nature of the salesman-consumer relationship results in a greater degree of consumer trust for salesmen and enhances their perceived expertise and impartiality.

The relatively high credibility of a friend as a source of product information is supportive of the numerous findings concerning the importance and impact of word-of-mouth communication on consumer behavior. The high level of perceived trustworthiness of friends would, moreover, support the position that word-of-mouth information is particularly influential when psychosocial risk is present. On the other hand, the significantly greater perceived expertise of seals of approval would appear to indicate that they are an excellent source of functional or performance information.

In general, however, the most original and interesting finding of the study concerns the overall superior credibility of seals of approval. This result goes a long way toward explaining previous proprietary studies of seal influence which have resulted in such overwhelming findings concerning the influence of these symbols.[10] Even though the majority of these symbols are little more than promotional tools, and their classification as consumer-dominated is at best theoretical, it is obvious that most women do not perceive of them in this fashion. Instead, seals of approval are viewed as being significantly more trustworthy, expert, and impartial than either of the other promotional tools (advertising and personal selling) available to the marketing manager.

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THE CUMULATIVE EFFECTS OF ADVERTISING: SOME EXAMPLES

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ABSTRACT

Although it is generally conceded that the sales of some firms are caused at least in part by advertising effect, it has been difficult to quantify the relationship. This is particularly true when the cumulative effect of advertising is considered. This paper presents a model which evaluates the cumulative effect of inputs (advertising) on outputs (sales).

Correlation coefficients between the cumulative advertising input for different time (spans of advertising) and sales output were computed for fourteen selected firms. The results of this investigation for the years 1952 through 1969 are presented in this paper.

MODEL

It is proposed as a general hypothesis that the level of sales S at any time $\underline{t}$ is a function of the cumulative advertising ΣA over some consecutive number $\underline{n}$ of time intervals through $\underline{t}$. That is

$$S_{\underline{t}} = F(\Sigma A_{\underline{n}}) \tag{1}$$

For example, if $\underline{n}$ is a span of three consecutive time intervals then

$$\Sigma A_{\underline{n}} = A_{\underline{t}} + A_{\underline{t-1}} + A_{\underline{t-2}} \tag{2}$$

and

$$S_{\underline{t}} = F(A_{\underline{t}} + A_{\underline{t-1}} + A_{\underline{t-2}}) \tag{3}$$

The objective of this model is to determine the optimum time span (or number $\underline{n}$) of advertising time intervals required to maximize S at present time $\underline{t}$. Depending upon the available data, the time intervals can be any convenient unit. Typically, these are months or years, although shorter time units can be used. A and S are usually dollars. There is no reason however, why other measuring units, such as the area of advertising space and the quantity of product sold, cannot be used.

The optimum span $\underline{n}$ is determined by testing $\underline{n}$ over some selected range of values, e.g., 1 to 5. The testing is by a simple correlation of sales $S_{\underline{t}}$ versus the cumulated advertising expenditures $\Sigma A_{\underline{n}}$. The correlation coefficient $\underline{r}$ (with a corresponding $\underline{F}$ value) is obtained for each span value $\underline{n}$. The optimum span $\underline{n}$ of cumulated advertising ΣA corresponds to the peak correlation coefficient $\underline{r}$.

The testing of $\underline{n}$ and the determining of the $\underline{r}$ values can be by other than simple correlation. For example, transformation techniques may be used such as log values, exponentials, etc. However, these techniques are more complex and the selection of the appropriate transformation may have to be decided by trial and error. Therefore, it seems to be appropriate to at least begin with a simple correlation and then, if necessary, use transformation techniques.

APPLICATION OF THE MODEL

Table 1 contains illustrative sales data and corresponding cumulative advertising data for the years 1952 through 1969 for the General Electric Company. The sales data is in billions of dollars. The advertising data is in millions of dollars and is cumulated for one to five years. Using this data and similar data for thirteen other firms, the correlation coefficients r and F values were calculated for n values of 1 through 5. The r values are the result of the relationship between sales S and each column of cumulated advertising ΣA_n for n values of 1 to 5.

TABLE 1

Illustrative Data, Sales Versus Cumulated Advertising
General Electric Company
n = 1 to 5

Year	Sales	1	2	3	4	5
1952	2.62	11.6	24.0	33.6	41.2	53.0
1953	3.51	15.2	26.8	39.2	48.8	56.4
1954	3.33	17.9	33.1	44.7	57.1	66.7
1955	3.46	19.9	37.8	53.0	64.6	77.0
1956	4.09	25.0	44.9	62.8	78.0	89.6
1957	4.34	17.2	42.2	62.1	80.0	95.2
1958	4.12	15.4	32.6	57.6	77.5	95.4
1959	4.35	20.1	35.5	52.7	77.7	97.6
1960	4.20	16.5	36.6	52.0	69.2	94.2
1961	4.46	14.0	30.5	50.6	66.0	83.2
1962	4.79	17.7	31.7	48.2	68.3	83.7
1963	4.92	18.0	35.7	49.7	66.2	86.3
1964	4.94	18.4	36.4	54.1	68.1	84.6
1965	6.21	18.7	37.1	55.1	72.8	86.8
1966	7.18	23.0	41.7	60.1	78.1	95.8
1967	7.74	18.5	41.5	60.2	78.6	96.6
1968	8.38	18.3	36.8	59.8	78.5	96.9
1969	8.45	18.1	36.4	54.9	77.9	96.6

Table 2 presents the resulting r values, five for each firm. The fourteen firms are ranked according to the percentage of sales volume expended on advertising for the years 1952 through 1969.

Table 3 presents the resulting F values for constant degrees of freedom (1, 16). Each F value is for a corresponding r value presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Correlation Results
Sales Versus Cumulated Advertising n Years

Firm	Adver-tising*	r values, n=1-5 1	2	3	4	5
Gillette	8.3	.868	.924	.943	.949	.958
Kellogg	5.4	.644	.712	.744	.778	.803
Procter & Gamble	5.2	.840	.894	.912	.921	.929
General Mills	4.2	.669	.831	.905	.897	.879
Campbell Soup	3.1	.865	.934	.965	.975	.979
Johnson & Johnson	2.4	.919	.968	.979	.984	.988
R. J. Reynolds	2.3	.904	.905	.906	.908	.911
Distillers-Seagrams	1.5	.916	.923	.924	.925	.927
Coca-Cola	1.4	.833	.895	.938	.945	.959
Chrysler	.7	.827	.817	.797	.770	.741
Ford Motor	.4	.966	.963	.965	.968	.969
General Motors	.4	.925	.935	.931	.930	.928
General Electric	.4	.323	.450	.564	.630	.634
Westinghouse Electirc	.4	.142	.247	.316	.395	.453

*Advertising as a percent of sales, 1952 through 1969.

TABLE 3

F Test

Firm	F values*, n=1 to 5 1	2	3	4	5
Gillette	49	93	128	145	176
Kellogg	11	16	20	24	29
Procter & Gamble	38	64	79	89	101
General Mills	13	36	72	77	54
Campbell Soup	47	109	215	310	370
Johnson & Johnson	87	239	377	476	644
R. J. Reynolds	71	73	73	75	78
Distillers-Seagrams	84	91	93	95	98
Coca-Cola	36	65	118	133	183
Chrysler	35	32	28	23	20
Ford Motor	225	203	219	237	243
General Motors	94	112	104	102	100
General Electric	2	4	7	10	11
Westinghouse Electirc	.3	1	2	3	4

*Constant degrees of freedom (1, 16).

SUMMARY

The results as presented in Table 2 appear to indicate a cumulative advertising effect for thirteen of the fourteen firms. This is illustrated by generally increasing r values (correlation coefficients) as the advertising is increasingly cumulated over one to five years (n = 1 to 5). Only Chrysler showed decreasing r values.

The first nine firms in Table 2 (Gillette through Coca-Cola) can be classified under the category of household products (i.e., razor blades, food, soap, drugs, tobacco, liquor, and soft drink). The last five firms (Chrysler through Westinghouse) can be classified as technological or industrial products. As might be expected, the household product firms expended a higher percentage of sales dollar on advertising than the technological product firms. Likewise, these firms tended to have higher r values than the technological product firms (with the exceptions of Ford and General Motors).

It is especially interesting that the correlation coefficient results of some competitors are very similar. For example, as illustrated in Table 1, the r values for Kellogg and General Mills are about .65 for n = 1 and gradually increase to above .8 for n = 5. The r values for Ford and General Motors are above .9 for n = 1 and remain relatively constant (however, Chrysler does not follow this pattern). The r values for General Electric and Westinghouse Electric are very low for n = 1 and remain low.

More investigations are needed to determine the quantitative effects of advertising. Very few such studies have been reported in the literature. One notable exception is "The Measurement of Cumulative Advertising Effects," a doctoral dissertation by Kristian S. Palda, published by Prentice-Hall in 1963. The dissertation was a 1963 Ford Foundation Award Winner.

Further investigations are under way by the authors to determine whether or not the r values reach a peak or level off for a particular firm. There is a slight peaking effect of the r values in Table 1 for two of the firms--General Mills and General Motors--after only two or three (n = 2 or 3) years of cumulated advertising. It is feasible that more definite peaking or leveling off of r values would be observed if the advertising was cumulated for time periods in excess of five years. If such peaking does exist, it might correspond to the well known product market life cycle.

THE AUTHORITARIAN PERSONALITY: ITS RELATIONSHIP TO ENTERING THE ADVERTISING FIELD, AND SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE ADVERTISING BEHAVIOR

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Problem

The social effects of advertising are the subject of a great deal of discussion today. Because of its obtrusiveness in the daily communication process through the mass media, combined with the magnitude of mass media behavior on the part of the general population, advertising fulfills its role as "salesman." However, some have begun to question the "incidental" social learning effects resulting from this exposure to mass media advertising.

What are the potential "incidental" learning effects of advertising? What are consumers learning about beliefs, values, and socially acceptable behavior in our society, based upon the advertising message? Clearly, the problem to be examined is: what social learning is disseminated through advertising messages apart from the commercial and economic objectives of the message?

This study is not going to document the amount of social learning which is disseminated in each of several conceptual areas, but it does attempt to point out areas where advertising practitioners may have some "control" of the potential social learning which may take place. Advertiser "control" is determined by the degree of self-reported behavior the practitioner undertakes in social effects areas.

Secondary Sources Relating to Problem

In this paper, the social effects discussed are the ones which may have an impact on one's values and on one's behavior ("life-style"). This area of advertising effects seems to currently be a very frequently discussed aspect of advertising. Specifically, the Consumer Subcommittee of the Senate Commerce Committee has recently held hearings concerning the establishment of a federally funded National Institute on Marketing and Health. This institute would be given the mission to conduct research on the psychological and social impact of advertising and marketing. During the hearings, a noted psychiatrist in arguing for the funding of this institute has stated:

> ...advertising, in some measure, contributes to some of society's problems, including the rising divorce rate, the failure of man-woman relationships, the loosening of the family structure and dependency on drugs.[1]

The concern shown for this area of advertising effects is supported as being of great importance, as well as being an elusive area for research, by a

Marketing Science Institute Staff Report (1971). They state:

> ...(we will examine) what impact advertising/marketing communications have on the values and behavior (here called 'life-style' to convey more than just purchasing behavior) of members of society. The issues involved are the most important--and at the same time the most difficult to resolve--of the issues treated in this report.... The issues comprising these topics, although the subject of frequent debate, have not been researched in much depth.[2]

The earliest discussion concerning the social effects of advertising was met by the response that advertisers are merely reflecting an accurate profile of the American value system rather than distorting these values and integrating these into the commercial messages. This led Petit and Zakon (1962) to state:

> The truth of the matter is that the critics of advertising are not really criticizing advertising; they are criticizing the American value system itself.[3]

The assumption has always been that advertisers are accurately reflecting society's values within their advertisements. Is this a viable assumption? This question has not been adequately resolved at this point in time. In speaking to this issue the Marketing Science Institute Staff Report (1971) states:

> We did not uncover any empirical evidence that would resolve one way or the other the issue of creation vs. reflection of public values. Most writers on this topic seem to believe that advertising/marketing communications are implicated to some extent in value/behavior origination--generally, an undesirable situation from the viewpoint of social commentators. Most observers agree, however, that advertising reflects prevailing life styles to a considerably greater extent than it creates them.[4]

The point should be made that the accurate reflection of society's values may not necessarily be the most socially responsible objective. The advertising industry may be doing a disservice to our society by continuing to reflect a value which may not be contributing to the well-being of society as a whole. However, the intent of this paper is not to decide how much advertisers do or do not accurately reflect societal values, or which social values are more or less "learned" by consumers through exposure to advertising, but rather to document the degree to which different types of advertisers are willing to utilize advertising appeals which emphasize values that are often pointed to as socially dysfunctional in nature.

The concept of "social responsibility" on the part of advertising practitioners has also been much discussed in recent times. This is a troublesome concept since it would appear the basis for the determination of socially responsible behavior on the part of the practitioner rests upon the delineation of those values which are socially dysfunctional or not in the best interests of society in general. Who determines those social values which are dysfunctional? It is not at all clear this is a problem which will be solved at the empirical level in the short-term future. For the moment, the alternative to definitive understanding of this problem lies in an observation of those values which seem to be the subject of much debate, though this does not indicate that a given value is dysfunctional, it does point out certain areas which are open to question. For example, when a Presidential Commission is appointed to study the relationship between violence and the mass media, some indication is given that there are many in the society who have questions about the value of displaying violence in the mass media. The complexity of determining socially dysfunctional values is illustrated in the above case since the Commission apparently was unable to arrive at concrete conclusions concerning the issue of violence in the mass media.

Another area open to some question is that of the use of fear in advertising appeals. Even a Journal of Marketing article recently asks the question: "What is the nature of appeals concerned with damage to one's social image or self-concept? What are the effects on the audience of employing such appeals? Is it possible to determine whether their use is justified in an economic or social sense?"[5] These particular authors conclude that the use of fear appeals in advertising is open to question because of the possible negative social effects of anxiety stimulation. While in another area of conceptual concern, Gerald Thain, the Federal Trade Commission's assistant director for national advertising in the Bureau of Consumer Protection, recently told the American Management Association that "unfairness" in advertising includes:

> ...advertising claims implying substantial benefits toward satisfying basic emotional needs or anxieties, such as the need for affection or acceptance, when the advertising product does not in fact offer such benefits.[6]

The emphasis on children with respect to the above and other problems need not be elaborated upon.

Another problem area in advertising with respect to values portrayed is that of prejudice and rascism. Here it appears to be fairly accepted, no doubt because of large efforts on the part of the government, that advertisers have a social responsibility to portray a variety of people from varying racial groups in their advertising. Also, empirical work is more advanced in this "value area" than in others. For example, a study sponsored by the American Association of Advertising Agencies showed:

> ...those who were more optimistic about the future were more favorably inclined toward advertising designed to reduce prejudice than were the more pessimistic respondents. These findings suggest that 'brotherhood' type advertising may have a salutory effect in actually reducing prejudice.[7]

Finally, Howard and Tinkham have set forth criteria by which they believe advertising and social responsibility should be examined. For example, they define the "nonfunctional value" created by advertising:

> Nonfunctional value created refers to an advertising-induced change in the consumer's belief structure. In this case...beliefs are changed with respect to objects other than the product or brand being advertised.[8]

With leaders from within the field of marketing and advertising advocating study such as the above, it has become clear that some problem exists in the area of "values" as transmitted by advertising. In this study, the authors have attempted to select values which are most often mentioned within and outside the advertising field with respect to possible dysfunctional consequences for social well-being.

Advertising Practitioner Characteristics

Currently, a great deal of responsibility is being placed on the advertising practitioner. It is assumed that he is, to some degree, accurately reflecting society's values and that this reflection of values has "some type" of social effect upon society. This responsibility is laid on the shoulders of men which we know very little about. Who are the people who comprise the occupational role: advertising executive and decision-maker? Are they the types who can accurately perceive the values of society and then accurately encode these values into advertisements without distortion? In order to make an "educated guess" about the manner in which advertisements are affecting society's values one must know something about the personalities of individuals within the advertising field.

In several recent articles, Greyser (1972) has underlined and documented the need for advertising practitioners to be perceptive of society's needs, and, move to meet these needs. He observes:

> ...advertisers will have to evince much more advance sensitivity to possible criticism.
>
> ...advertisers are going to have to learn to live in a world of more attention, more criticism, and more regulation. How they calibrate their own behavior can affect the pace and intensity of the attention, criticism and regulation.
>
> ...If the industry--with or without government stimulus--fails to move decisively against the 'bad apples,' today's atmosphere portends grief for not just them but for nonoffending advertisers as well.[9]

Likewise, a sampling of business executives who subscribe to the Harvard Business Review were surveyed on their attitudes towards advertising. The point was clearly made that the people in advertising are responsible for advertising content and should remain accountable for advertising effect. The report states:

> The government, along with the public and our economic system, receives very little credit or blame for advertising's condition. Advertising agency people and company advertising departments lead both of these lists. These same groups are perceived as being very much accountable for changing advertising, but on this dimension top management moves into first place. Respondents believe that those who set company policy--and approve advertising's piece of the company budget- are best able to ensure that advertising shapes up.[10]

Likewise, we know that individuals who perceive a similarity between themselves and individuals within a profession are going to be more apt to enter the profession,[11] as well as take on the values of individuals who are in a profession the individual desires to enter.[12] Larkin (1971) concluded that individuals deciding upon the advertising field as their profession tended to share a common value system with one another.[13]

One can conclude, therefore, that individuals who have decided to enter the advertising field are similar to one another in their value system before entering the field as well as similar to individuals already in the field once entering advertising. This leads to the question of what types of individuals are considering advertising as a profession, what type of individuals are in the field, and how do the socially responsible behavior of different types of people in the field differ?

Initial investigation into the question of the type of individual who may be interested in entering the field has uncovered a possible clue. Surlin (1973) found that high authoritarian journalism students were more favorable in their attitude toward the institution of advertising.[14] This finding could possibly reflect the interest on the part of high authoritarian individuals to enter and remain in the advertising field.

This study attempts to delineate a definable and measurable personality type, authoritarianism, and document the desire by this type of individual to enter the advertising field, and once in the field, document how high-low authoritarian individuals participate in socially responsible behavior in their advertising decisions.

Concepts and Hypotheses

The criterion measure of personality used in this study is the authoritarian personality syndrome. This personality syndrome was conceived by Adorno and others in 1950, and has been researched ever since.[15] The importance of this concept is first, the depth and breadth of the personality syndrome, and second, the effect this personality syndrome has on behavior. Thus, the concept of authoritarianism links a highly intricate and deepseated personality structure with dispositions toward certain beliefs and social behavior patterns.

Briefly, the authoritarian personality is highly ethnocentric, politically and economically conservative, avoids introspection, thinks in terms of dichotomies, has an intolerance of ambiguity, has a strong concern for status and rigidity in institutional organizations, has a greater allegiance to institutions, and is prejudiced toward out-groups, or people perceived to be different from himself. This concept is distributed along a scale ranging from high authoritarian types, middle types, and low authoritarian types of individuals. In other words, every individual exhibits, to some degree, some of the characteristics of the authoritarian syndrome.

This concept is of importance in this study because of the potential behavior undertaken by those advertising executives who are observed to be high in authoritarianism. It is reasoned that high authoritarian individuals who have a favorable attitude toward institutions, in general, and the institution of advertising, in particular, would to a relatively greater degree than low authoritarian individuals decide to enter the advertising profession. Since high authoritarians are conservative, avoid introspection, and tend to be prejudiced toward minority groups, it is believed that a majority of white, male, middle-class, high authoritarian advertising executives would not be open to bringing about premediated social change in this society through the controlled use of advertising. Thus, social problems dealing within areas such as equal rights for females and minority groups, anti-war sentiment, more humanistic expressions of love, etc., would not be perceived as within the province of advertising. This feeling would most likely be translated into a lack of overt behavior on the part of the high authoritarian to deal with these problems in his advertising decisions in a positive social manner.

There are some predictions which can be made about the factors underlying high and low authoritarian individuals' desire to go into the advertising field based upon the ideas embodied in the authoritarian concept. It is clear the high authoritarian personality very often looks to institutionalized structures for guidance in everyday living, they may base their decisions in everyday matters after asking themselves what others would do if in this situation, where "others" refers to institutionalized individuals or organizations. These institutionalized others or "generalized others" are embedded in the individual's attitudinal component as far as decision-making is concerned. It should be noted, in this regard, that the normative component assessed in the research to follow is based upon "role-specific" or situational others, i.e., parents and best friends, as opposed to generalized or institutional others. It therefore seems reasonable to predict that the highly authoritarian individual's desire to go into the advertising field will be governed more by his "own" attitude on this matter (which, in the case of high authoritarian individuals, includes the effect of the generalized other) rather than upon what other individuals specific to this situation mey think about what that person should do about entering the field of advertising.

Therefore, based on this rationale the hypotheses for this study are:

H_1: High authoritarian students would exhibit a greater desire to enter the advertising field than low authoritarian students.

H_2: High authoritarian students will base their occupational choice less on normative or significant other dictates than will low authoritarian students.

H_3: High authoritarian advertising executives will behave in a less socially responsible manner than will low authoritarian advertising executives.

Methodology

Students enrolled in an introductory advertising course at the University of Georgia (n=134) were the student subjects in this study. They were asked to respond to twelve self-administered statements included in the Christie Forced Choice F Scale (short form),[16] used as the measure of authoritarianism in this study. Next, the students were asked to respond to questions concerning their intention to enter the advertising field, the basis for this intention, as well as responding to the same seven-interval semantic differential word-pair rating one's attitude toward the institution of advertising used by Surlin (1973).

Fishbein (1967) has found in an extended series of studies that intentions can be explained by primarily two factors: (1) an individual attitudinal factor, and (2) a normative or social factor.[17]

Briefly, Fishbein states that the individual attitudinal component consists of two elements: (1) the probability that an individual holds a particular belief connection between an attitude object and some aspect of that object (B_i), and the evaluation of the consequences of holding a particular belief connection (a_i). For example, an individual's attitude toward advertising might be assessed through use of two statements in the above manner:

(B_i): Advertising is non-political in nature.
Probable:___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Improbable
(a_i): For advertising to be non-political in nature is:
Good:___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Bad.

These two elements are multiplicative in the Fishbein model. The normative component is measured in a similar matter where the elements in multiplicative relationship are: (1) the perception by the respondent of an "other's" belief about the attitude object (NB), and (2) the extent to which the respondent complies with that other's belief (Mc). These two components, individual and normative, have been found to explain intentions and behavior in a variety of situations.

Students completed the self-administered instrument which contained items allowing for the construction of attitudinal and normative indices, and a scale for the measurement of intentions to go into the advertising field. All items employed a seven-interval semantic differential format ranging from "very favorable" to "very unfavorable." Significant others, in this study, were selected as university professors for courses the student has taken, the student's parents, and the student's best friend at college.

The advertising executives, in this study consisted of all agency principles in every listed advertising agency in Atlanta, Georgia.[18] Each individual was sent a mail questionnaire which contained, in part, ten of the same statements used to measure authoritarianism for the student sample, and eleven statements measuring advertising behavior.[19] The ten authoritarian statements were rated on a five interval scale ranging from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree", thus restricting the range of measurement for authoritarianism to a score of ten to fifty. The authors assume that for the eleven behavior statements the executive will be able to accurately rate his own behavior. Each statement began "I would...". The response scale for each statement consisted of a five-interval range moving from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree." The advertising behavior statements mainly rated the decision the advertiser would make when using a particular appeal or technique within an advertisement.

Totally, 393 questionnaires were mailed. At the end of the four-week return period, 18 questionnaires were returned because of improper address, and 112 completed questionnaires were received. Thus 30% of the questionnaires received by subjects were completed and returned.[20]

Findings

Student Respondents

When looking at the student group responses, the results are consistent with past research and with the conceptual base used for the stated hypotheses. The student subjects (n=134) were divided into high and low authoritarian groups based upon a median split on totaled item scores. Between group differences were analyzed through t-test analysis of group mean scores.

Supporting Surlin's (1973) finding that high authoritarians hold more favorable attitudes toward the institution of advertising, this study resulted in similar findings ($t=2.84$, $p < .01$). Likewise, support was given for the conceptual belief that attitudinal and normative components are significantly related to one's decision to enter the advertising field. For all students, when utilizing the attitudinal and normative components as independent variables in a multiple regression analysis, a significant relationship is found with the dependent variable being, intentions to enter the advertising field ($R=.25$, $p < .05$).

The finding that the high authoritarian student consistently rates himself as having a greater interest in entering the advertising field than does the low authoritarian student ($t=1.76$, $p < .10$), is in support of the first hypothesis. Also, consistent with the second hypothesis furthered about student respondents, the low authoritarian group exhibits a higher mean score on the normative or significant other component as the basis for deciding to enter the advertising field than does the high authoritarian group ($t=2.42$, $p < .02$).

It has now been documented that journalism students who are high authoritarians will first, exhibit a more favorable attitude toward the institution of advertising, and second, state a greater desire to enter the advertising field than will low authoritarian students, and will decide to enter the advertising field on the basis of their own personal motivation as opposed to the tendency by low authoritarians to enter the field because of what significant others may communicate to be their desire for the individual. The next logical step is in considering the differential behavior of high-low authoritarian advertising executives.

Advertising Executive Respondents

Before making between group comparisons a factor analysis was run in order to determine the affinity for particular types of advertiser behavior within the eleven conceptual areas under investigation. Three well-defined factors seem to emerge.

The concepts which loaded highly on Factor #1 consist of advertisers' behavior in the use of: vanity appeals, sex appeals, snob appeals, puffery, portraying married life as problems that can be solved by the purchasing of products, and portraying love in an advertisement as the spending of money and giving of goods. This factor is evolving around the "distortion of interpersonal relations."

The concepts which loaded highly on Factor #2 consist of advertisers' behavior in the use of: misusing the English language, dramatizing war scenes, depicting violence, fear appeals, and showing wastefulness. The conceptual orientation of this factor is "destructivity."

Finally, the third factor consists of the advertisers' behavior in using black models in their advertisements. This concept seems to stand alone in terms of how advertisers behave. This factor is obviously labeled "racial relations."

TABLE 1

Factor Analysis of Eleven Behavior Statements
for Advertising Practitioners
(Three factor varimax rotation of principle components
with the correlation matrix as input)

Behavior Concepts	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Vanity Appeals	.67		
Sex Appeals	.58		
Snob Appeals	.81		
Puffery	.68		
Married Life Problem Solving	.72		
Love as Giving of Goods	.72		
Misusing the English Language		.57	
Dramatizing War Scenes		.63	
Depicting Violence		.83	
Fear Appeals		.66	
Showing Wastefulness		.72	
Black Models			.87

Factor 1 is labeled "Distortion of Interpersonal Relations"
Factor 2 is labeled "Destructivity"
Factor 3 is labeled "Racial Relations"

Advertiser totaled authoritarianism scores were divided into trichotomized groups, with one-third of the advertising executive respondents who each had the highest and lowest authoritarian scores included in the high-low authoritarian sub-groups, and analyzed for each behavioral concept. Significant differences were noted for only four of the eleven concepts for any two of the three sub-groups using t-test statistics.

In general, responding Atlanta advertising executives "agree" that they "would use": vanity appeals to advertise cosmetic, diet, or other similar products; black models in advertisements other than for black oriented products; sex appeals; and, snob appeals. In general, they "disagree" that they "would use": dramatic war scenes in order to advertise children's war toys, dolls, and games, and, scenes depicting violence. In general, the advertising executive sample is "neutral" that they "would use": a misuse of the English language in the advertisement, puffery; the portrayal of married life as problems, that can be solved by the purchasing of products, the portrayal of love in an advertisement as the spending of money and giving of goods; and fear appeals in an advertisement.

For the four concepts defined in this study as open to question with respect to promoting dysfunctional social values within which significant between group differences were found, three of them were more responsibly dealt with by high authoritarians: misusing the English language, depicting violence and using fear appeals. Thus, high authoritarians report themselves as behaving in a more socially responsible behavior than do low authoritarians. This finding is not supportive of our hypothesis, and, it supports conclusions which are the reverse of the hypothesis, i.e., low authoritarians may behave in a less socially responsible manner than do high authoritarian advertising executives.

TABLE 2

Advertising Practitioner Authoritarianism Groupings
and Mean Score Comparisons on Eleven Self-Reported Advertising
Behaviorial Concepts
(1=Strongly Agree; 5=Strongly Disagree)

Behavioral Concepts ("I would")	High Auth.	Middle Auth.	Low Auth.
(1) Use vanity appeals to advertise cosmetic, diet, or other similar products.	2.02	2.13	2.00
(2) Misuse English language to advertise a product.(a)	3.66	3.05	3.12
(3) Dramatize war scenes to advertise children's war toys, dolls, and games.	4.00	3.97	4.16
(4) Not use black models in advertisements other than for black oriented products.(b)	3.80	3.74	4.34
(5) Use a sex appeal in an advertisement.	2.46	2.26	2.28
(6) Use scenes depicting violence in my advertisements.(c)	4.22	4.00	3.75
(7) Use "snob appeals" in my advertisements.	2.71	2.51	2.59
(8) Use puffery in my advertisements.	3.44	3.18	3.25
(9) Portray married life as problems that can be solved by the purchasing of products.	3.78	3.82	3.78
(10) Portray love in an advertisement as the spending of money and giving of goods.	3.49	3.69	3.41
(11) Use fear appeals in my advertisements.(d)	3.58	3.85	3.28

(a) High Auth. sig. different from Mid. Auth. @ .02 and from Low Auth. @ .10.
(b) High Auth. sig. different from Low Auth. @ .02, Mid. Auth. sig. different from Low Auth. @ .01.
(c) High Auth. sig. different from Low Auth. @ .10.
(d) Mid. Auth. sig. different from Low Auth. @ .05.

The one significant conceptual area between group difference which was in the direction of the original hypothesis concerns the use of black models. Although the high authoritarians tended to "agree" that they would use black models in advertisements other than for black oriented products, they were significantly less adamant about this behavior than were low authoritarian advertising executives (t=2.38, df=71, $p < .02$).

Conclusions

Findings seem to support the contention that high authoritarian individuals are attracted to the advertising field, most likely because of the role advertising fulfills in our society. Most individuals probably feel that advertising brings order to our economic system, a potentially positive aspect for high authoritarian personality types. Because of a desire, internally motivated, to make a career in an institution which is bringing order to our economy, as well as reflecting the values of society, the high authoritarian student states a greater intention to enter the advertising field than would a low authoritarian student.

Thus, for the high authoritarian student, what his parents, best friend, or professors have to say about making advertising a career have little impact on his desire to enter the advertising field. It should be noted that not all student subjects in this study were advertising majors; it is projected that perhaps 50% of those in the study were advertising majors. This factor may have affected our results, and limited the interpretation of the data.

High authoritarian advertising practitioners were found to be more "responsible" in their use of advertising content, especially relating to "destructivity" (violence, fear, and misuse of English). Unfortunately, advertising practitioners, as a whole, condone the use of advertising content which "distorts interpersonal relations" (vanity, sex, and snobbery), as well as being neutral to many other concepts in this conceptual area (portraying love and married life, fear, puffery, and misusing English). Thus, it is not surprising that this area of handling interpersonal relations in advertisements is also the most under attack.[21]

Most likely, the high authoritarian advertising executive is reacting to his own deepseated personality syndrome when he says he would be less likely to use violence and fear appeals. This is supported by Allport's (1958) observations of a high authoritarian personality, "This need for authority reflects a deep distrust of human beings... (there is) the tendency of prejudiced people to agree that 'the world is a hazardous place where men are basically evil and dangerous.[22] Likewise, the high authoritarian's desire not to misuse the English language in advertisements may be a reaction to the destruction of "order" in language, or as Allport (1958) points out, "...those who are more afraid of swindlers have higher prejudice scores in general. They feel more threatened by trickery than by direct physical attack."[23]

The social effect concepts which show greatest behavioral support from advertising practitioners are violence and the use of black models. Undoubtedly, all advertisers have a reflex reaction to the term "violence." Thus, all generally agree they would not use violence. Likewise, because of much discussion concerning the racial problems in our society, most advertisers reflexively state that they would use black models. However, the personality syndrome of a highly prejediced individual surfaces in that he would be less likely to use a black model than would a low authoritarian practitioner.

Summary

One may be led to predict that, over time, the advertising industry may continue to attract highly authoritarian individuals. Consequently, these individuals may continue to ignore the conscious advertising content decisions which must be made in order to meet basic standards of social responsibility. Especially in the area of values relating to interpersonal relationships, this is where advertisers in general seem to be least socially responsible.

Instances in this study when advertisers responded in a behaviorally responsible manner to social problems in our society, could be traced to how this behavior is merely reflective of the advertiser's own deepseated fears and apprehensions. Also, the authors believe that a possible reason for lack of significant differences between high and low authoritarians in their behavior may be the lack of clear differences in personality structure. A low authoritarian "typed" advertising practitioner may not be very different from a high authoritarian "type." If primarily high authoritarian "types" are attracted to the advertising field, the personality of all advertising practitioners may be very homogeneous. Another possible explanation for a lack of high-low authoritarian group differences may be the pressures of business which strongly affect all individuals and negates personality type differences.

In general, the potential for having advertising practitioners take upon themselves the job of becoming socially responsible in their advertising decisions and in throwing out the "rotten apples" looks very dim. Of course, more research needs to be conducted, especially in different areas of the country and in comparing the propensity for high authoritarian individuals to enter the advertising field as opposed to entering other professional fields.

If in the future advertising executives do not exhibit a greater concern, through their advertising content decision making, for meeting social responsibilities, other institutions in our society will most likely feel compelled to force this responsibility upon advertisers. Needless to say, this will be a "bitter pill" for advertisers to swallow.

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15. Cf. T. W. Adorno, et.al., The Authoritarian Personality, New York, Harper, 1950; Milton Rokeach, The Open and Closed Mind, New York, Basic Books, 1960; J. P. Kirscht and R. C. Dillehay, Dimensions of Authoritarianism: A Review of Research and Theory, Lexington, Ky., University of Kentucky Press, 1967; Gordon W. Allport, The Nature of Prejudice, Garden City, N.Y., Doubleday Anchor Books, 1958.

16. The Christie Forced Choice F Scale (short form), consists of twelve pairs of questions (each pair stating a similar but reversed-direction statement) upon which an individual first chooses his statement and then selects one of three levels of agreement: "slightly more," "somewhat more," and "a great deal more." Thus, there were six scale points, three levels of agreement for each of the two alternatives. Since there were twelve pairs, the range of measurement ran from twelve to seventy-two.

This particular scale was first devised and reported in: Christie, R., Havel, Joan, and Seidenberg, B. "Is the F scale irreversible? Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1958, 56, 143-159. It was subsequently discussed in: Berkowitz, N. H. and Walkon, G. H. "A forced choice form of the F scale--free of acquiescent response set," Sociometry, 1964, 27, 54-65. Finally, the scale is reproduced and discussed in: Robinson, John P. and Shaver, Phillip R. Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes, Ann Arbor: Institute of Social Research, 1969, 245-249. This author will be more than happy to supply the scale items upon request.

17. Martin Fishbein, "Attitude and the Prediction of Behavior," in Martin Fishbein (ed.) Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement, New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1967, p. 477.

Exemplary of the items utilized to measure the individual attitudinal component of the Fishbein formulation is:

(B_i) For me, working in the advertising business would mean working in a field which adheres to ethical standards.
Probable:___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Improbable

(a_i) Working in a field which adheres to ethical standards is:
Good:___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Bad.

An example of an item used to assess the normative component is:

(NB) I believe my parents think I should go into the advertising business:
Probable:___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Improbable.

(Mc) How strongly do you want to do what your parents think you should do with regard to going into the advertising business?
Very Strongly:___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Not Very Strongly.

And, finally, the following was used to measure intentions to go into the advertising field:

I intend:

to work
in the
advertising
business:___:___:___:___:___:___:___: not to work in the advertising business

18. Totally, 98 of the nearly 150 advertising agencies in Atlanta had their principles listed in either the advertising Red Book, August, 1973 or in Southern Advertising Markets, March, 1973. The sample included the president, vice-presidents, account supervisors, media executives, copy heads, research heads, and production supervisors which were listed for each agency.

    Included in the sample were Atlanta's nine largest billing agencies (Burke, Dowling, Adams; Tucker Wayne; Cargill, Wilson, and Acree; Liller, Neal, Battle, and Lindsey; McDonald and Little; Burton, Campbell, and Kelley; Gerald Rafshoon Advertising; Schofield, Heirs, & Malone; and Rowe, Kirkland, White, and Schell). These nine agencies account for approximately \$85 million in billings.
19. The authors wish to acknowledge, and express their appreciation for, financial support extended through a University of Georgia Faculty Research Grant which funded the advertising executive survey.
20. The return rate for this survey compares quite favorably to the 27% return rate experienced by Stephen A. Greyser and Bonnie B. Reece in their survey of Harvard Business Review subscribers, "Businessmen Look Hard at Advertising," op. cit., p. 19.
21. See reference 1.
22. Gordon W. Allport, op. cit., p. 382.
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A STATISTICAL APPRAISAL OF THE POTENTIAL OF INTERACTION PROCESS ANALYSIS FOR COMMUNICATION RESEARCH

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Interaction process analysis is an observational method for the study of the social and emotional behavior of individuals in small groups (Bales, 1971). The method was developed as a general-purpose descriptive and diagnostic procedure designed to produce theoretically relevant measures for all sorts of small groups, thus encouraging the development of empirical norms. The method has been used by a number of different investigators (Bales and Hare, 1965).

The conceptual foundation of interaction process analysis may be contained in this analogy: in our social world, we live as leaders and as followers. Often, it is through leadership and its many dimensions that one person affects, persuades, or motivates another person. The theory postulates three principal factors to define such leadership: dominance, likeability, and task-orientation. An individual's rank, or score, on each of these factors, or dimensions, is an indication of his relative style of leadership. For example, individuals scoring high on task variables have been described as task leaders, as compared to those who, say, score high on affect, and are described as social leaders (Bales, 1958). On the other hand, one who scores low on all three scales could be described as an underactive deviant, and after becomes a 'scape-goat' of the group. The uniqueness of the Bales model as opposed to others lies in its behavioral nature, that is, the characteristics are quantifiable and susceptible to observation.

Bales (1971, p. 259) has provided a key for interpretation of such interaction profiles, which is essentially reproduced in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Interpretation of Interaction Profile

Category	Interaction Score (If High)	Interaction Score (If Low)	
1. Seems friendly	P	N	
2. Dramatizes	UB	DF	**Dimension II**
3. Agrees	PF	NB	U=Upward
4. Gives suggestion	UF	DB	D=Downward
5. Gives opinion	F	B	
6. Gives information	UP	U	**Dimension I**
7. Asks for information	UP	DN	P=Positive
8. Asks for opinion	P	N	N=Negative
9. Asks for suggestion	DF	UB	
10. Disagrees	N	P	**Dimension III**
11. Shows tension	DB	UF	F=Forward
12. Seems unfriendly	N	P	B=Backward

The dimensions or factors are presented in a spatial metaphor merely to aid visualization and memory. For example, on Dimension II, power, or dominance of an individual may be pictured as being vertical in space--upward if dominant, downward if submissive. Dimension I contains variables related to liking (positive) and disliking (negative). Dimension III reflects ratings on acceptance of group task (forward) versus non-achievement (negative). Bales states that the dimensions should be considered as essentially uncorrelated, or unrelated. Subjects' ratings may be totaled and compared vis-à-vis ordinal scaling.

The Bales interaction model has been evolved from a factor analysis by Couch (1960), which employed an exceptionally large number of measures. Competing with the Bales model are similar schemes, primarily used in education research (Kirk, 1963; Hough and Amidon, 1964, Furst, 1965, Romoser, 1965; Zahn, 1965), and applied to teacher training.

Application to Communication Research

Although perhaps theoretically attractive, the Bales model presents difficulties in operationalizing its terms into those used in communication research methodology. Primarily, such difficulties come about through the use of the previously mentioned "factors" that have variables that often as not correlate equally with two differing factors or dimensions. This would seem to be an obstacle to a factor analytic test of the model, in which, for example, one would want to conduct an analysis (perhaps using computer program RELATE) in which the theoretical matrix pattern may be used as a "target" for rerotation of a second (empirical) structure, to determine goodness of fit.

A second difficulty, again dealing with factor analytic theory, is that no factor scores are provided by Bales. In other words, variables relating to each factor are not clearly identified, along with each variable's relation, expressed in product moment coefficients.

A third difficulty lies within the concept itself. Although strongly linked to a mainstream of interest in education research, it is only weakly linked to current lines of inquiry into general analysis of leadership processes, which are perhaps more explicitly served by Blau (1964), Fiedler, (1967), Cartwright and Zander (1968), and Bavelas (1965). Finally, it has only sparse application to current issues in such areas of communication research as marketing communications and information theory methodology. Yet as these studies typically focus upon the persuasion of source leadership, and subsequent attitude change, it would seem reasonable to assess the potential of the Bales model for such inquiry.

With the preceding statement in mind, this inquiry was undertaken to provide such statistical appraisal. Could adaptation yield an instrument that, for instance, could assess in behavioral terms the interaction of selected publics with messages from an institutional source? Or detect differing perceived images as projected by corporate or institutional sources? Or could it provide self-sort factors that compare favorably with the dimensions theorized by Bales?

Methodology

In general terms, the model was modified and tested as to its robustness and applicability to communication research studies. More specifically, it was subjected to two forms of cluster analysis, and to two factor analyses, and transformed into a twelve-scale instrument showing some promise for self-report use.

Thirty subjects, principally university students, provided data through use of Q-sort technique. The subjects (fifteen male, fifteen female) were asked to rate themselves, through use of an eleven-category set of fifty-six variables derived from Bales terminology. They were requested to "score" themselves in terms of these variables from least characteristic to most characteristic, in typical forced-choice Q-sort procedure.

The fifty-six statement Q-sort was constructed from the original twelve variables postulated by Bales, plus forty-four more or less logically related statements. An equal number of positive and negative statements per each variable was derived (Emmert and Brooks, 1970, p. 169).

To overcome procedural difficulties posed by Bales' variables loading upon one and two factors, it was postulated that factors Affect, Dominance, and Task-orientation were to be treated as originally stated, and such scales as loaded directly upon them "purely" were to be indicated as such. However, scales that loaded upon two factors equally and concomitantly were grouped into additional "factors." For instance, scale "seems reasonable" loads upon both Affect and Task, and thus was assigned to a new factor so labeled. (Further, all positive or negative directionality was eliminated.) In all, six factors emerge from this procedure--the three original factors, plus three interaction factors. Table 2 indicates the operational scheme of the Bales model.

TABLE 2

Bales Interaction Model (Theoretical Statement Set)

I. Affect

1. Seems friendly*
2. Seems pleasant
3. Seems likeable
4. Seems warm
5. Unfriendly*
6. Unpleasant
7. Dislikeable
8. Cold
9. Disagreeable*
10. Shows passive rejection
11. Seems ultraformal
12. Obstructive
13. Asks for opinion*
14. Seeks evaluation by others
15. Seeks others' viewpoints
16. Asks others' attitudes
17. Doesn't solicit opinions

II. Dominance

18. Gives information freely*
19. Talkative, but to the point
20. Often initiates interaction
21. Brings out important points

III. Task-orientation

22. Has strong opinions*
23. Often offers viewpoint
24. Often states evaluation
25. Offers judgments often
26. Rational
27. Mature

TABLE 2 (continued)

IV. Affect and Dominance

28. Asks for information*
29. Seeks orientation
30. Asks for more facts
31. Seeks new points from others
32. Gives little information
33. Doesn't seek information

V. Affect and Task

34. Seems agreeable*
35. Supportive to others
36. Cooperative
37. Rewarding to others

VI. Dominance and Task

38. Dramatic*
39. Full of humor
40. Has lively feelings
41. Unconventional
42. Shows tension*
43. Anxious
44. Is a worrier
45. Solemn
46. Gives suggestions often*
47. Very helpful
48. Offers good ideas
49. Speaks out freely
50. Often asks for suggestions*
51. Seeks ideas from others
52. Asks for ideas often
53. Seeks help from others
54. Boring
55. Relaxed
56. Doesn't ask for suggestions

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*original statement variable

Results

FORTRAN program HGROUP (Veldman, 1967) was run as a preliminary inspection method. It utilizes a generalized distance function based on the concept of error sums of squares, which progressively groups, or clusters, either persons or variables, in such a way as to minimize an overall estimate of variation within cluster. Following is data of clustered groups by person (Table 3) and by variable (Table 4).

TABLE 3

Hierarchical Clustering Analysis
By Subjects

No. of Groups	Error Term
9	58.35
8	62.39
7	71.38
6	75.10
5	78.90
4	88.54
3	101.81
2	103.20

TABLE 4

Hierarchical Clustering Analysis
By Variables

No. of Groups	Error Term
9	51.59
8	52.25
7	52.38
6	53.15
5	55.50
4	61.61
3	103.60
2	129.17

Data obtained from Table 3 would generally indicate natural clusterings of persons in groups of three, five, or six, but weakly indicated. Data obtained from clustering of variables would generally indicate groups of four, five, or six, and again but weakly indicated in Table 4.

First Factor Analysis

The first factor analysis was carried out through principal axis analysis and Varimax rotation, with only roots greater than 1.00 extracted. Procedure accounted for 56 per cent of the common variance, and obtained six factors. Table 5 presents the data.

TABLE 5

	Variance	Loading	Theoretical Factor
Factor I. Affect	Disagreeable	-.82	Affect
	Cold	-.80	Affect
	Dislikeable	-.79	Affect
	Unfriendly	-.77	Affect
	Unpleasant	-.76	Affect
	Pleasant	.75	Affect
	Friendly	.74	Affect
	Likeable	.69	Affect
	Boring	-.69	Dominance and Task
	Agreeable	.65	Affect and Task
	Ultraformal	-.60	Affect
Factor II. Verbal Interaction	Often seeks suggestions	.77	Dominance and Task
	Seeks others' views	.76	Affect
	Speaks out freely	-.70	Dominance and Task
	Asks for opinions	.69	Affect
	Seeks ideas from others	.60	Dominance and Task
Factor III. Reclusiveness	Doesn't solicit opinions	-.67	Affect
	Often states evaluation	.66	Task
	Seeks orientation	-.66	Dominance and Affect
	Doesn't ask suggestions	-.62	Dominance and Task
	Brings out important points	.59	Dominance
Factor IV. Ego Strength	Is a worrier	-.77	Dominance and Task
	Shows tension	-.70	Dominance and Task
	Mature	.58	Task
	Anxious	-.55	Dominance and Task
Factor V. Social Interaction	Asks for information	-.75	Dominance and Affect
	Dramatic	.66	Dominance and Task
	Solemn	-.58	Dominance and Task
	Asks for facts	-.55	Dominance and Affect
Factor VI. Propriety	Unconventional	-.74	Dominance and Task
	Supportive	.62	Affect and Task
	Helpful	.60	Dominance and Task

Inspection of data from Table 5 would indicate that when compared to obtained data, theoretical factor structure breaks down rapidly after Factor I, Affect. Suggested are certain factor names, an arbitrary choice, to indicate somewhat the nature of the factors. This data, then, would suggest that, as earlier indicated by hierarchical clustering analysis, a natural grouping of variables does occur in a cluster of six factors, but, nevertheless, the structure bears only a weak and perhaps superficial correlation with the Bales model.

Second Factor Analysis

One further step is available, in that Bales indicated that his dimensions lie along only three factors. Based upon this, the factor structure was hand-rotated to obtain maximum loadings upon a three-factor orthogonal structure. The data is presented in Table 6. (Only highest loadings are reported.)

TABLE 6

Three-Factor Structure

	Variance	Loading	Theoretical Factor
Factor I. Affect	Pleasant	.82	Affect
	Dislikeable	-.82	Affect
	Unfriendly	-.81	Affect
	Disagreeable	-.80	Affect
	Friendly	.77	Affect
	Unpleasant	-.76	Affect
	Cold	-.71	Affect
	Agreeable	.64	Affect and Task
	Likeable	.63	Affect
	Boring	-.63	Affect and Dominance
Factor II. Social Interaction	Doesn't seek information	-.72	Dominance and Affect
	Seeks ideas from others	.71	Dominance and Task
	Seeks others' views	.69	Affect
	Asks for opinions	.59	Affect
	Anxious	.59	Dominance and Task
	Speeks out freely	-.58	Dominance and Task
	Doesn't solicit opinion	-.54	Affect
	Is a worrier	.54	Dominance and Task
Factor III. Task Orientation	States his evaluation	.65	Task
	Often offers viewpoint	.60	Task
	Unconventional	-.60	Dominance and Task
	Seeks help from others	-.52	Dominance and Task
	Offers judgments often	.51	Task
	Seeks new points from others	-.48	Dominance and Affect

Data from Table 6 would seem to indicate a better fit with postulated Bales dimensions, even though certain variables take on a new relationship. For example, it would seem that Factor II should be more objectively tagged as Social Interaction than as Dominance.

Modification of Basic Bales Model

The three-factor structure, as presented, contains at least two characteristics that weaken its applicability to self-report. First, the variables given have not been inspected for variability, or instability. Second, many of the dimensions overlap psychologically, and nearly measure to an extreme amount, the common variance, and thus perhaps fail to include a fairer picture of each factor as a whole.

To overcome the first of these objections, inspection rejected several of the given variables, due to large sigmas, in spite of high loading. Secondly, some alternate measures were chosen as judged less reflective of psychological overlap. The modified Bales model is presented in Table 7.

TABLE 7

Transformed Bales Model

Factor I.	Affect:	Seems pleasant Seems agreeable Ultraformal (-) Boring (-)
Factor II.	Social Interaction:	Seeks ideas from others Seeks other viewpoints Speaks out freely (-) Has strong opinions (-)
Factor III.	Task Orientation:	Often states evaluations Gives information freely Unconventional (-) Seeks help from others (-)

Thus, once again, a twelve-scale instrument is achieved and one that perhaps has potential for use in communication studies, particularly those involving self-report data, rather than observational data.

Summary and Implications

In summary, it was the purpose of this research to pioneer the possibility of adapting the Bales interaction process model, a general purpose observational instrument measuring leadership, to a form suitable for communication research involving leadership characteristics. For instance, market communication studies have long needed an instrument that explores the notion that brand and corporate image concepts can be studied within a product/consumer interaction context. For instance, smokers and non-smokers often render similar image profiles of cigarettes such as Marlboro and Benson and Hedges. Yet these two publics most obviously differ in the psychological distance that they place between the brands and themselves.

The data obtained in this research suggests that Bales variables as reported in the three-factor analysis structure present a logical as well as mathematical profile. The method of adapting such a general purpose, observational methodology to Q-sort technique obviously creates changes within characteristics, yet in this case, the factors if anything, seem to be enhanced.

Further testing, of course, is mandatory. Perhaps most advisable would be multiple discriminant analysis, a sort of treatment provided by such computer programs as DSCRIM, in which the discriminative abilities of individual variables are compared.

On balance, data secured in the research here would support the notion that the modified three factor Bales model presents a potentially rich survey instrument for consumer/image studies, due to the fact that (1) the instrument is linked to a large body of conceptual theory relating to leadership and persuasion, but (2) also that the variables are objectively determined, up to the observational capabilities of the raters. To the point here is that a similar attitude instrument, Osgood's semantic differential, provides much weaker behavioral scale variables by which to evaluate or quantify a personality, group, or institution.

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conjunction with big, powerful, conspicuous, attention-getting motorcycles. The reasons for the factor's existence vary for the five persons. The factor influences buying plans for only the experienced motorcyclists.

Factor B represents sensible, high-quality motorcycles with role involvement based on past experience and enjoyment of motorcycling. The motorcycles are the ones a responsible, safety-conscious, quality-minded person would buy. All but the most experienced cyclist (E-1) would buy for these reasons.

Factor C concerns novelty, fun, or communication pleasure. None of the men would buy a motorcycle for these reasons, however. What seems to be at issue is a glimpse of a new life-style in which the motorcycle is only a part.

Factor D reflects a recognition of the performance and efficiency of the machines. However, only the second experienced rider (E-2) considers this a reason for selecting a motorcycle.

The remaining new factors E, F, and G, are unique to the two novice riders and the non-cyclist. Factor E represents the first novice's (N-1) limited cycling and his ambivalent involvement with his motorcycle. Nevertheless, it is what he says he would buy. Factor F concerns enjoyment per se with no buying plans. Factor G is basically a repeat of the non-cyclist's original factor based on his judgment of a high quality motorcycle which is honestly advertised and made to be enjoyed. However, it is not enough to make him buy.

In some cases the theories we have examined apply but in others they do not. A major contribution of the theories was to reveal the pragmatic significance of display, quality, safety, fun, and performance as advertising appeals for motorcycles. The major theoretical contributions were the insight they provided into the complex motorcycle domain and their help in revealing the deep involvement of the self in motorcycling.

Consumerizing in the motorcycle domain appears to be more in terms of the values attributed to the cycles than in terms of the mechanical and design characteristics put there by manufacturers. Consumerizing seems conducted for self enhancement. During such consumerizing, subjects seem to take for granted the physical attributes and performance characteristics of the motorcycles. Brand image and quality seem to be related but they may or may not influence buying negotiation.

The situation seems to be one in which the individual uses sometimes one stimulus or condition, sometimes another, or some combination of conditions to evoke a particular existing schemata or role in the motorcycle domain.

These roles cyclists and non-cyclists play in the motorcycle domain are subjective to them. The roles center on display, quality, safety, mechanical performance, and fun.

The self is central to all else. The theories as conditions of instruction accounted jointly and alone for only segments of the attitudenizing with regard to motorcycling. The factors bore no one-to-one relationship to the ads in the Q-sample.

The meanings the ads had for different individuals in the present research were very different, yet, the overall interpretations were of a very general nature.

The self is what gave the value to the various meanings the subjects found in the ads.

The factors for each of the single cases are indicative of roles and attitudenizing from the subject's own point of view. In all cases one factor represented what really matters to that person and it usually included buying negotiation.

Pragmatics

The subjective approach and the intensive study of the single case reveals values and meanings the subject found in the ads and in the products.

Factoring the factors strengthens the single case results by illustrating the lawfullness of the attitudenizing and behavior of the subjects.

Further pragmatic and theoretical research is suggested by current events. Motorcycle sales have increased dramatically as people seek economical transportation.

The new basic transportation-oriented cyclist should be examined. Drivers of other motor vehicles who share street and highway with cyclists should be understood. Professional cyclists have some contribution to the general milieu. Legislators, police, and judges influence cycling. Environmentalists and safety experts have expressed interest in the motorcycle.

The approach of the single case intensively studied from relevant theoretical positions can add to the necessary understanding of the forces that impinge on the cyclist and his domain.

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Appendix 1

THE CONDITIONS OF INSTRUCTION

1. Assume that you plan to buy a new motorcycle. Which of these motorcycles would you seriously consider? Which ones would you not consider at all? Q-sort these ads from +5 for those you would most seriously consider buying to -5 for those you would never consider. The ones between would be the ones you might consider.

2. Imagine you are glancing through a magazine in which these ads appear. Which would you stop to look at and which would you be likely to skip over entirely? Q-sort them on this basis...

3. Which of these brands or models of motorcycles have you had experience with? Q-sort those brands or models you have owned or ridden or know a lot about from personal experience...

4. Think of a person who more than any other had probably guided your general behavior. Q-sort the ads the way you think that person would have done it...

5. Sort the ads with respect to product quality, from those of highest quality (best materials, soundest workmanship, finest construction, and the like) to the shoddiest in these respects. Disregard how useful the motorcycle may or may not be...

6. A motorcycle is made for a purpose; that is, it does one thing best. Q-sort those which do their jobs most efficiently (+5)...

7. If you had plenty of money, and wanted to "go out on a limb" (that is, splurge without regard to what you have done in the past), which of these ads would be most likely to influence you...

8. Think of a person who, more than any others, has probably guided your interests. Q-sort the ads as you think that person would have...

9. Sort the ads according to which motorcycles are the physically attractive...

10. Which ads do you find to be the most aesthetically pleasing? Which do you find to be aesthetically unpleasing or ugly? Q-sort them...

11. What group do you think you identify most with? How do you feel that people in that group would regard these ads? Q-sort...

12. Suppose you were given or won enough money to completely pay for your choice of any motorcycle advertised here and the condition was that you had to spend it on a motorcycle or you didn't get it. Which would you be most likely to select? Q-sort...

13. Some ads in magazines seem to be enjoyed irrespective of the product or service advertised. With others it is just the reverse, they are unpleasant or distasteful, again irrespective of the products or services advertised. Q-sort the ads...

14. Some motorcycles have features that make them safer than others. Which motorcycles advertised here seem to you to be the safest...

15. The comraderie among motorcyclists is very strong and they talk a lot about motorcycles and their qualities. Which of these bikes would they talk about the most...

16. Some people seem to think motorcycles are a good way to get away from it all, to "do their own thing," to help forget the daily grind. Which of the motorcycles would help you get away...

17. Ads often contain more promise than the product delivers. Sort the ads for their honesty in accurately and adequately telling things you want to know about a motorcycle before you even shop for one...

18. Some products or specific models of products are made just to enjoy. Motorcycles seem to be one of those products. Which ones advertised here seem to be the ones made just to be enjoyed...

19. Sort the ads with respect to brand. The brands that you have the most faith in will be ranked +5...

20. It is sometimes said that one of the most important things one can know about a person is what he takes for granted. Some of these ads bear on this: some you probably take for granted and others you don't. Q-sort them from (+5) those you are most likely to take for granted...

21. Which of these ads is likely to influence you positively in some degree, and which the reverse? Q-sort them on this basis...

22. A passenger on her first motorcycle ride once said, 'It feels like everybody is looking at us.' Some passengers and some motorcycles attract more looks than others. Which products advertised here do you think would attract the most looks...

23. There is a quality in advertisements, news stories, TV programs, and such things that gives them authority or makes them stand out as being believable--sometimes regardless of the product or story. Q-sort the ads...

24. Some ads have a quality of novelty: that is, they in some way attract attention to themselves or stand out from other ads. Q-sort these ads on the basis of novelty...

25. We all have some feeling about the good life. Q-sort these ads the way you think a person living the good life would...

26. A doctor has said some motorcyclists have emotional problems involving their motorcycles. These general problems include an unusual amount of dreaming and daydreaming about motorcycles, a history of one or more serious

motorcycle accidents, strong feelings of being personally inadequate, poor self-control in personal life and a kind of fear of the motorcycle and of having an accident on the cycle. Q-sort these ads the way you think that kind of person would...

27. The number of casualties caused by motorcycle accidents reached 5,000 killed and nearly a million injured last year. Q-sort these ads the way you think a close friend or relative of one of these victims would...

TABLE I

Sample Varimax Loadings
For One Experienced Cyclist (E-2)

Condition of Instruction	I	II	III	IV
1				
2				
3		x		
4				
5				
6			x	
7				
8				
9	x			
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				x
15	x			
16				
17			x	
18				
19				
20				x
21				
22	x			
23				
24			x	
25				
26	x			
27		x		

TABLE II

New Factors From Old

Person	Original Factor	New Factors A	B	C	D	E	F	G
E-1	I	a						
	II		x					
	III				x			
	IV			x				
E-2	I	x						
	II		x					
	III				x			
	IV			x				
	V				x			
N-1	I		x					
	II	x				x		
	III				x			
	IV				x			
	V							
	VI					x		
	VII					x		
N-2	I	x					x	
	II						x	
	III		x					
	IV						x	
	V	x						
NC	I		x					
	II			x				
	III	x						
	IV							x
	V							

TABLE III

Factor Arrays for the Factored Factors

Ad No.	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1	0	+3	0	+2	+3	+3	+4
2	-2	-1	+1	-3	-3	+3	-5
3	+2	-1	+5	+4	+5	+2	-2
4	+3	-5	-1	-2	0	-2	0
5	-3	-3	+4	+4	-5	+5	+1
6	-5	-3	-5	-4	-5	-4	0
7	-1	-2	+3	-1	-5	+2	0
8	-1	-1	-3	-3	-4	-4	-3
9	0	+2	0	-5	+5	+4	+3
10	+2	0	-2	+1	+4	+3	-1
11	+1	-5	-3	-2	-2	-2	0
12	-2	-2	-1	-1	-4	0	-2
13	-3	+1	0	0	+2	+4	+3
14	-2	0	-5	+3	+2	0	-2
15	+2	0	0	+2	+4	+1	-2
16	0	+4	-4	-1	-2	-2	-4
17	+4	+4	+2	+5	+1	0	+4
18	+3	-4	-2	0	-3	-3	0
19	-1	+4	0	-5	+5	+5	+5
20	-5	-3	-5	0	-2	-1	+4
21	+2	+4	+1	+5	-1	-5	+2
22	-3	+5	+4	-4	+4	+2	+5
23	-1	+1	0	+2	0	-1	-4
24	+1	+3	-3	+5	+3	0	-1
25	+4	-4	0	0	-2	-3	0
26	0	-2	+1	-1	-4	+5	+3
27	-5	-3	-1	0	-3	0	+2
28	-3	+2	+5	0	+1	-5	0
29	0	+2	-2	+1	+4	+2	-3
30	+2	-1	+1	-4	-2	-4	-4
31	+3	+5	+4	+4	+1	+1	+5
32	+5	-4	-1	-2	0	-2	+1
33	0	0	+2	+2	-1	+4	-1
34	-4	-1	+1	-4	-1	+1	+3
35	-4	+3	+5	0	+3	-5	-1
36	+1	+1	+3	-3	+1	0	+2
37	+1	0	+2	-5	-3	-2	-5
38	+5	+2	+2	+2	+1	0	+4
39	+4	-5	-3	-2	0	-2	+1
40	0	+1	+3	+3	+2	+2	+2
41	-4	-2	-4	+1	-1	-1	+2
42	+4	+5	+2	+3	0	-4	+1
43	-2	0	-2	-1	-4	-3	-1
44	-1	+2	-1	-2	+2	+1	-3
45	+3	0	+3	+1	+3	+4	+4
46	+5	-4	-2	+3	-1	-1	-5
47	+1	+1	+4	-3	0	+1	+1
48	-4	-2	-4	+1	0	-1	-3
49	-2	+3	-4	+4	+2	+3	-2

THE EFFECTS OF INTEGRATED ADVERTISING ON SELECTED DIMENSIONS AND ELEMENTS OF DEPARTMENT STORE IMAGE

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The use of integrated advertising, defined as any advertisement containing at least two individuals of identifiably different ethnic background who occupy primary, secondary or background roles, has undergone a rapid metamorphosis in the United States during the past twenty-five years. The character and number of integrated national and local advertisements for products, services and institutions has changed and increased in all the various media, especially since the beginning of the sixties.[1] However, during this same period, only a small number of significant research studies have appeared which examine the possible impacts of integrated advertising on American Negroes and whites in the United States.[2] No published studies have been discovered which attempt to measure the "effectiveness" of integrated advertising in selling goods or services,[3] or adequately answer the question of the impact of integrated advertising on store image.

Need for the Study

Integrated advertising is of concern or importance as an area of study only if there exists an economically and/or socially significant American Negro market. If such a significant and distinctive market does not exist for an advertiser, there would be no need for, or concern with, mixed-race advertising. One must ask such questions as: 1) is the Negro market a unique market segment? 2) is it economically or socially significant? and 3) if so, does it provide economic and/or social opportunities to advertisers and retailers which might be facilitated through the use of integrated advertising?

The blacks in America have undergone an historical and cultural evolution quite different in many ways from that of whites. They have developed many cultural, social, psychological and consumption patterns as reactions to their particular environment which are unique to their race.[4] "Although the Negro market includes other special markets--teenages, females, mass and class--it is clearly a distinct market with its own geographical, social, and psychological reality based on common experience and physical differences."[5] This market is large, comprising better than 11 per cent of the total United States population (22,580,289),[6] and is increasing at a rate better than 57 per cent faster than that of whites.[7] It cannot be considered realistically by businessmen as just a special market. The Negro market today is a basic market.[8]

In order for the Negro market to be important to retailers, it must also have the purchasing power to buy goods and services. Between the years of 1920 and 1969, the purchasing power of Negro families and unrelated individuals has increased by approximately 31 billion dollars.[9] The Negro market is particularly important to department store retailers in central city areas. Between 1960 and 1966, the population of whites in central city areas declined by nearly 2 per cent, while the non-white populations (92 per cent of which are Negroes) gained nearly 24 per cent.[10] Of cities with 100,000 inhabitants or more in the United States, 20 now include better than 35 per cent of their populations as blacks.[11] More than 50 per cent of the entire Negro population lives within 78 of the largest cities in the United States. Within these 78 cities, two-thirds of all retail sales are made.[12] This means that of the $364,271,000,000 retail sales in 1970, $33,558,000,000 representing department store sales, over $240,000,000,000 were in sales in only 78 cities, which contain well over 50 per cent of the U. S. Negro population. In Chicago alone, blacks spend more than 2.7 billion dollars in retail trade each year.[13] The Commerce Department in 1969 estimated current buying power of Negroes as 34 billion dollars. By the year 2000, that market is expected to reach 75 billion dollars.[14] As of 1967, Negro purchasing power was "about 1/3 as large as the total purchasing power of Italy, 60 per cent as big as the total sales potential of Canada, and about as large as the total buying power of Spain and Sweden combined. In short, the domestic Negro purchasing potential is roughly equivalent to the total of all U. S. export sales abroad."[15]

Considering the size of this potential market, it is amazing how little research has been conducted on how to most effectively reach the Negro market. Over 19 billion dollars were spent in 1970 on advertising.[16] Of this amount, approximately 5.9 billion was spent in newspapers. Although no exact figures are available, it is estimated that better than 90 per cent of this latter amount is basically retail advertising.[17] Since every advertisement projects to some degree the image of this store identified in the advertisement, it would appear wise to know if one should use all black models, all white models, or some combination to create the store image desired by management. This information is necessary if the store manager is going to utilize efficiently his rather sizeable advertising dollars.

Many black pressure groups, such as C.O.R.E. and N.A.A.C.P. have been active since 1963 encouraging through arguments of social responsibility and economic pressure the expanded use of integrated advertising. Whether the reason a retailer considers the use of integrated advertising is a feeling of social responsibility, economic pressure, or a desire for greater personal gain, it is important to be familiar with the potential impact of integrated advertisements on his store's image.

Objective of Research/Hypotheses

The objectives of this study were twofold. The first objectives was to determine the degree to which Negroes and whites are capable of formulating and interpreting a store image based upon two representative sample store advertisements. If Negroes and whites can indeed formulate fairly concise store images based upon only the advertisements of a retail store, then it must be determined if the image projected by identical advertisements is interpreted differently by Negroes and whites. What is the direction and significance of these differences as related to all white, all black, and integrated advertisements?

Hypotheses:

H_1 Negro and white students are capable of interpreting and formulating a store image based upon two representative sample store advertisements.

H_2 The use of well-conceived integrated advertising will result in a positive response by black students toward store image elements when compared against responses of black students to all white advertisements for the same store.

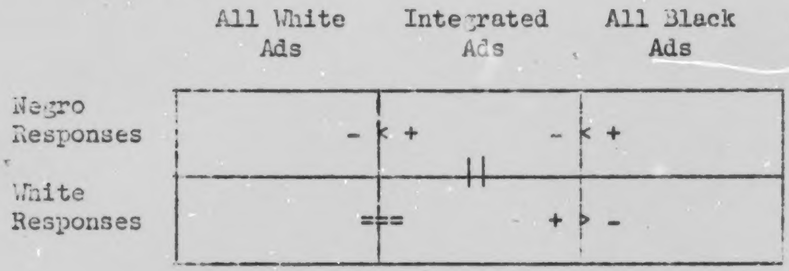
H_3 The use of well-conceived integrated advertising will result in a negative response by black students toward store image elements when compared against responses of black students to all black advertisements for the same store.

H_4 The use of well-conceived integrated advertising will result in a positive response by white students toward store image elements when compared against responses of white students to all black advertisements for the same store.

H_5 The use of well-conceived integrated advertisements will result in a similar response by black students toward store image elements when compared against responses of white students to integrated advertisements for the same store.

H_6 The use of well-conceived integrated advertisements will result in a similar response by white students toward store image elements when compared with responses of white students to all white advertisements for the same store.

In somewhat simpler terms, the intent of Hypothesis I is to determine the ability of black and white students to abstract from only two store advertisements the various elements of store image. Hypotheses II through VI may be best clarified through the use of an illustration. This illustration indicates the expected general relationships for the elements of store image. The words positive and "high prestige" or negative and "low prestige" are considered synonymous in most of the store image elements.



Research Design

The research was conducted at the University of Colorado, Boulder campus, among a restricted stratified sample of black and white students registered during the Spring semester of 1972. A sample of 205 known blacks, plus 445 students, race unknown, were selected for sample purposes. Each individual was mailed a cover letter, two advertisements, a modified semantic differential instrument designed to measure 31 selected elements of store image, and ten questions regarding basic demographic information, including race. The three sets of two advertisements, differing only in the race of the models, were selected from 420 newspaper advertisements run during January and February of 1972 by a large department store in the Dayton Daily News. A commercial artist was commissioned to alter the models' physical characteristics of each of the two advertisements, resulting in two all white advertisements, two all black advertisements, and two integrated advertisements. A professional printing company reproduced the required number of each version of the advertisements in their original sizes on utility grade paper, which closely resembled the original newspaper in both color and texture. These research packets were mailed through the facilities of the Bureau of Business Research of the University of Colorado School of Business. Responses were coded and entered on IBM cards, and then subjected to Chi Square Measurements of Goodness of Fit. Those elements which satisfied Hypothesis I were then subjected to the Mann-Whitney U-Test, unadjusted for ties, and compared with the hypothesized results under Hypotheses II through VI.

Findings and Conclusions

The first objective of this study was to determine the degree to which Negroes and whites are able to formulate and interpret a store image based upon two representative sample store advertisements. Table I indicates the responses of whites to the all white, all black, and integrated advertisements. White respondents were able to significantly interpret and formulate store image elements (at the .05 level of significance) in all three versions of the advertisements in approximately 68 per cent of the cases. At the .10 level of significance, this figure becomes 92.7 per cent. The only case in which all three sets of advertisements were not significant was in response to the store image element, 'would I be likely (unlikely) to meet my friends in such a store.' It is believed that the non-significant response to this store image element actually indicates that the respondents could significantly determine the class of people who would patronize this store. The sample simply represents a cross section of different class people. Therefore, their responses should vary if the store class image is clear. Another interesting result indicated in Table I is that white respondents can significantly formulate a store image for 100 per cent of the image elements (.10 level of significance) from the all black advertisements, 96.8 per cent in the integrated advertisements, and 90.3 per cent from all white advertisements. It appears that white respondents receive a clearer image from both the integrated and all black advertisements than they do from all white advertisements. From these findings Hypothesis I is strongly supported in 90 per cent of the store image elements for whites. Unfortunately, the sample size of black responses was too small to analyze.

The second objective of this study was to determine the direction and magnitude of differences in interpretation between identical advertisements and between all black advertisements versus all white advertisements versus integrated advertisements. Table II indicates, in highly generalized form, the results of this study. Table II alone provides 279 pieces of experimental data each cell of which could be analyzed in its data form as to its relationship with each horizontal or vertical store image element. This would result in well over a million experimental situations to discuss and explain. Although this is obviously impossible to do, the data does yield certain patterns of relationships of significant importance to retailers.

TABLE I

Summary of Chi Square Measure of Goodness of Fit
All Advertisements - Black and White Respondents

Store Image Elements	Ad #1 (W)	Ad #2 (W)	Ad #3 (W)
Price of Merchandise:			
Value for Money	Yes	Yes	Yes
Price Level	Yes	Yes	Yes
Merchandise Suitability:			
Quality	Yes	No[1]	Yes
Selection	Yes	Yes	Yes
Number of Brands	Yes	Yes	No[1]
Product Dependability	Yes	Yes	Yes
Styles	Yes	Yes	Yes
Store Personnel:			
Friendly	Yes	Yes	Yes
Number on Floor	No	Yes	Yes
Make You Feel Important	Yes	Yes	Yes
Congeniality and Physical:			
Clean	Yes	Yes	Yes
Attractive	Yes	Yes	Yes
Layout	Yes	Yes	Yes
Crowded	Yes	Yes	Yes
Display Neatness	Yes	No[1]	Yes
Friendly to Blacks	Yes	Yes	Yes
Advertising:			
Informative	Yes	Yes	Yes
Believable	Yes	Yes	Yes
Realistic	Yes	Yes	Yes
Natural	No	Yes	Yes
Better than...	Yes	Yes	Yes
Helpful	Yes	Yes	Yes
Store Services:			
Check Cashing	Yes	No	No[1]
Credit	Yes	Yes	No[1]
Delivery	Yes	Yes	Yes
Return Policy	No[1]	Yes	No[1]
Hours Open	Yes	Yes	Yes
Your Friends and The...			
Meet Friends There	No	No	No
Upper Class	Yes	Yes	Yes
Middle Class	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lower Class	No	Yes	Yes

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[1] Significant at the .10 level of significance.

Ad #1 = All White Advertisements
Ad #2 = Integrated Advertisements
Ad #3 = All Black Advertisements
W = White Respondents
B = Black Respondents

TABLE II

Measure of Response Differences and Direction of Differences

Store Image Elements	Ad#1W-Ad#2W	Ad#2W-Ad#3W	Ad#1W-Ad#3W	Ad#1B-Ad#2B	Ad#2B-Ad#3B	Ad#1B-Ad#3B	Ad#1B-Ad#1W	Ad#2B-Ad#2W	Ad#3B-Ad#3W
Price of Merchan.:									
Value for $$$	1 ← 2	2 > 3	1 → 3	1 → 2	2 → 3	1 > 3	1B>1W	2B←2W	3B←3W
Price Level	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 → 3	1 > 3	1B→1W	2B←2W	3B<3W
Merchandise Suit.:									
Quality	1 ← 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1B>1W	2B←2W	3B←3W
Selection	1 ← 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1 > 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B>1W	2B←2W	3B←3W
# of Brands	1 < 2	2 → 3	1 < 3	1 → 2	2 → 3	1 > 3	1B>1W	2B←2W	3B<3W
Product Depend.	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B→1W	2B<2W	3B←3W
Styles	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B→1W	2B<2W	3B<3W
Store Personnel:									
Friendly	1 → 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1B→1W	2B←2W	3B←3W
Number on Floor	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1B←1W	2B→2W	3B←3W
Feel Important	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1 → 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1B→1W	2B←2W	3B<3W
Congeniality & Phy.:									
Clean	1 ← 2	2 ← 3	1 < 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B→1W	2B←2W	3B←3W
Attractive	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1B→1W	2B←2W	3B<3W
Layout	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1B→1W	2B←2W	3B>3W
Crowded	1 → 2	2 > 3	1 > 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B→1W	2B<2W	3B→3W
Display Neatness	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B←1W	2B<2W	3B←3W
Friendly to Blacks	1 ← 2	2 > 3	1 > 3	1 → 2	2 → 3	1 > 3	1B>1W	2B→2W	3B←3W
Advertising:									
Informative	1 ← 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1 > 2	2 → 3	1 > 3	1B→1W	2B<2W	3B<3W
Believable	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B←1W	2B←2W	3B→3W
Realistic	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1B←1W	2B←2W	3B←3W
Natural	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1B←1W	2B←2W	3B→3W
Better than...	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1B→1W	2B←2W	3B→3W
Helpful	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B←1W	2B<2W	3B←3W

TABLE II (continued)

Measure of Response Differences and Direction of Differences

Store Image Elements	Ad#1W-Ad#2W	Ad#2W-Ad#3W	Ad#1W-Ad#3W	Ad#1B-Ad#2B	Ad#2B-Ad#3B	Ad#1B-Ad#3B	Ad#1B-Ad#1W	Ad#2B-Ad#2W	Ad#3B-Ad#3W
Store Services:									
Check Cashing	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B→1W	2B←2W	3B←3W
Credit	1 ← 2	2 < 3	1 < 3	1 → 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1B→1W	2B→2W	3B←3W
Delivery	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 → 3	1B→1W	2B→2W	3B→3W
Return Policy	1 ← 2	2 < 3	1 < 3	1 > 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B>1W	2B←2W	3B←3W
Hours Open	1 ← 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1B→1W	2B←2W	3B←3W
Your Friends and:									
Meet Friends	1 ← 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B<1W	2B<2W	3B<3W
Upper Class	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1B←1W	2B<2W	3B<3W
Middle Class	1 ← 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 ← 3	1B→1W	2B←2W	3B→3W
Lower Class	1 → 2	2 ← 3	1 → 3	1 < 2	2 → 3	1 ← 3	1B<1W	2B→2W	3B←3W

Significant at .05 level.
Greater than →
Less than ←

Ad #1 = All white advertisements
Ad #2 = Integrated advertisements
Ad #3 = All black Advertisements

W = White Respondents
B = Black Respondents

A general view of all the hypothesized combinations of store image elements discloses that in 89.67 per cent of the cases, no significant (.05 level of significance) differences exist between the paired experimental conditions. This indicates that among black and white students, at least at the University of Colorado, there are generally no statistically significant distinctions in image made toward the test department store, even when derived from two advertisements containing all white, integrated, or all black models. Despite this general conclusion based upon only the percentage of statistically significant results, it is believed important to look at the direction of differences and their magnitude of the non-significant elements.

White respondents tend to view integrated advertisements in a more positive manner than they do all white advertisements in 80.64 per cent of the store image elements. The probabilities of this happening by chance are very remote. White students are mixed as to the degree of positiveness of store image when viewing integrated versus all black advertisements. When a comparison is made between the responses of white students between all white and all black advertisements, almost 71 per cent tend to find store image in all black advertisements more positive than when viewing all white advertisements. This is particularly true with reference to the evaluation of the actual advertisement itself.

In the case of black students a rather peculiar finding was uncovered by looking at the direction of differences of the statistically non-significant results. Over 85 per cent of the black students tended to find store image in all white advertisements more positive than in integrated advertisements. Store image was also viewed more positively when blacks observed all white advertisements than when all black advertisements acted as the source of information.

Another set of interesting comparisons can be made between the perceived store image of blacks for each type of advertisement and that of whites. In almost 71 per cent of the elements, blacks tended to judge the store image projected by white advertisements more positively than whites viewing the same advertisement. For the integrated advertisement, the white respondents perceive the store image more positively than blacks in 83.9 per cent of the elements. This same trend is followed for the all black advertisements for 74.2 per cent of the elements.

Summary of Conclusions and Implications to Retailers

Probably the most important finding for the marketing practitioner from this study is the suggestion that retailers may actually lower their store image as projected to blacks when they attempt to utilize integrated or all black newspaper advertisements. However, white students interpret store image more positively when viewing integrated or all black advertisements. The implications of this are obvious, but unexpected. For white University of Colorado students, a retailer would use integrated or all black advertisements if he wishes to increase the positiveness of his store image in their eyes. However, in most instances, integrated or all black advertising is used by retailers to increase the positiveness of their store image among potential black patrons. The research findings tend to indicate this will have the opposite effect.

A possible explanation for blacks' responses to stores using all white, integrated, or all black advertisements is the continuing association of whites with prestige stores and quality in merchandise and service. Until the last twenty years or so, blacks and whites shopped in different stores. Stores serving predominately white patrons offered many services and first line merchandise, while stores selling to blacks offered fewer services and poorer quality goods. It appears logical, therefore, that blacks perceived stores utilizing all white models as more positive and prestigeous than those apparently catering to both blacks and whites, or all blacks. While black students did generally find stores using all white advertisements more positive, they found the integrated advertisements more realistic, more natural, and better than all white advertisements. The amalgamation and integration present on this campus may explain why these differences were not more pronounced. Few Boulder stores are still conspicuously segregated.

White students found store image projected by integrated advertisements more positive than that projected by all white advertisements, but were mixed in their responses to all black advertisements. They felt the store which uses integrated advertising is being more socially responsible, creating a positive "halo effect" over all the store image elements. The integrated advertisements did not picture the whites in an inferior position, therefore avoiding most defensive mechanisms the whites might have held. The all black advertisements may have been interpreted as threatening, psychologically, to insecure whites, but to more socially and economically secure whites. This would explain the mixed responses toward the store using all black advertisements.

These findings and possible explanations will hopefully lead marketers to a better understanding of Negroes' and whites' responses to all white, integrated, or all black newspaper advertising. If a retailer is concerned with any particular element of his store image, as projected through his advertising he can examine Table II. These suggest the possible strength and direction a particular element of his store image may take among blacks or whites if he switches from his present type of advertising to either of the others. He need not guess blindly.

It is becoming increasingly important to retailers in general to understand the reactions of both blacks and whites to their newspaper advertising. How can they reach the growing black market? The rapidly increasing affluence of the Black markets will lead in the future to demands for a large variety of goods and services. Especially in the large cities, the black markets are becoming increasingly important to the survival of retailers. They must understand the potential impacts of using integrated, all white, or all black advertising on both their present and potential white and black patrons. They cannot afford a trial and error approach!

These findings cannot, of course, be projected beyond the defined population without considerable hazard. The results do indicate the possible importance of replicating this study on a national scale. It is just possible that much of the present integrated and all black newspaper advertising may be having a negative effect on the store image of the retailers.

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AN ANALYSIS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SHIFT PARADIGMS FOR ADVERTISING

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Advertisers have a definite need for a better understanding of consumers. There is paucity of useful theories, concepts, and models to aid the advertising manager in his decision making. Advertising lacks a theoretical base, and advertising managers must somehow borrow appropriate concepts from other behavioral disciplines. The problem that advertisers face is not whether to use insights from behavioral disciplines, but their problem is in determining how to extract and apply relevant social science concepts and theories. This paper analyzes a particular area of psychology in an advertising context. The literature concerning discrimination learning (shift paradigms) may be helpful to advertisers who need to examine how consumers classify, compare, and utilize advertising stimuli.

The basic assumption made in this study is that advertisements make possible consumer discriminations among products. The consumer is exposed to many similar brands of products in the market. Whenever a consumer selects a product he has in effect engaged in a form of discrimination learning. Consumer discrimination learning occurs when the individual purchases one brand but avoids purchasing a similar brand.

Although the preceding definition is structured in terms of brands, advertising (and not the product) is primarily responsible for the discriminative tendencies of consumers. "The ability to distinguish among the various brands...may technically exist, but the magnitude is quite small and is unlikely to be of great value in the market place.[1] As physical product differences become more diminished, the perception of symbolic and imagined product differences becomes more important. Thus, for purposes of this study, it was decided to delimit the analysis of shift paradigms to those involving concept shift discrimination learning.

Introduction to Shift Paradigms

Shift paradigms are psychologists' major analytical devices for the study of human discrimination learning.[2] The basic design for shift paradigms was introduced by A. H. Buss in 1953.[3] The general design of shift designs is as follows:

1. Subjects learn a discrimination;
2. reinforcements are switched from the original correct alternative to another; or, new alternatives may be introduced into the discrimination problem;
3. subjects are required to learn the new correct reinforcing alternative;
4. shift behavior are the responses made to these changes.

Advertisers need a model that will explain why and how consumers can be made to switch from Brand A to Brand B. Psychologists have formulated paradigms that explain behavioral changes resulting from reinforcement and stimuli changes. Shift paradigms can be divided into what are called "reversal shifts" or "nonreversal shifts."

Reversal Shifts

The first type of discrimination shift was termed "reversal shift" by Aronld Buss. A reversal shift involves reversing positive and negative cues. A reversal shift requires a subject to reverse his responses from one choice (previously the correct one) to another. The relevant dimension remains constant. J. L. Wolff defines a reversal task as an "...elementary form of CST (concept shift task) in which (a) the stimuli contain, at most, one irrelevant varying dimension, (b) this dimension remains irrelevant throughout the task, and (c) no new cues are introduced during the shift."[4] The distinguishing characteristic of reversal shifts is that no new dimensions are introduced for the subjects to learn. It is the correctness of the choice of a dimension that changes. A reversal shift "...a type of intradimensional shift, since the relevant dimension...remains constant."[5] For the purposes of this study, reversal shifts and intradimensional (abbreviated as ID) shifts will be used interchangeably.

Reversal shifts in an advertising context would occur if consumers could be made to perceive changes in the differences among products when there has been no real physical change. For example, suppose that a consumer has available to him two products that would satisfy his wants. The two products would tend to be physically similar to each other. The basis of a consumer's choice between product A and product B is the imagined difference that the individual has of the products. Advertising causes imagined product differences. It is possible for advertising to bring about subjectives shifts in consumers' perceived product satisfactions without a corresponding change in the product's dimensions.

Extradimensional Shift (ED)

A second kind of discrimination shift originally studied by Arnold H. Buss is called "nonreversal shift."[6] Slamecka contends that the term "extradimensional shift is a more precise description of Buss's nonreversal shift.[7] For purposes of this study, nonreversal and extradimensional will be used interchangeably.

The distinguishing characteristic of a nonreversal shift is that a subject is required to respond to a cue on a previously irrelevant dimension, or to a cue on a newly introduced dimension (novel stimuli). "Nonreversal shift involves a change in the dimension being discriminated, e.g., in Discrimination 1 the dimension is achromatic color (black vs. white) and in Discrimination 2 the dimension is shape (circle vs. square)."[8] In extradimensional shifts, one dimension is relevant for the learning of the first discrimination, and in a second discrimination task the subject must attend to another dimension.

An extradimensional shift closely parallels the advertising environment in several ways. The dimensions that are relevant to product choice are constantly changing either physically or subjectively. Advertising campaigns are in a constant state of flux. New products are introduced into the market and old ones are abandoned. A consumer's product environment is always changing. (Some consumers may not be aware of these changes in their decisions about products.) The consumer is affected by advertisements much like a subject in an extradimensional shift experiment. An extradimensional type shift, in terms of consumer behavior, occurs when a set of product dimensions change and the consumer must learn to discriminate among products having different cue associations. The extradimensional shift paradigm fits the following situations: (a) a consumer subjectively switches his dimensional preferences, and/or, (b) some physical aspect of the product dimensions are changed that require discrimination with new cues.

Differences in the Learning of Shifts

Arnold H. Buss found that college students had more difficulty in learning a nonreversal (ED) type shift than reversal shifts (ID).[9] This finding by Buss appears to be the most consistent finding in the shift literature. "All of the studies using human adults as Ss...consistently found that nonreversal shift to a different dimension provided a more difficult transfer task, in terms of trials to learn, than reversal shift."[10]

Howard H. Kendler and May F. D'Amato evaluated human concept formation by comparing reversal shifts with nonreversal shifts.[11] Kendler and D'Amato's article described the findings from three experiments with undergraduate students. Their assumption was that concept formation behavior consists of two successive S-R (stimulus-response) connections. Kendler and D'Amato's specific hypothesis was that appropriate symbolic cues would facilitate concept formation. Thus, a reversal shift should be more rapid than nonreversal shifts "...because at the completion of the learning of the first concept, the symbolic cues appropriate to the second concept would be present for the Ss in the reversal group, they would merely be connected to the 'wrong' sorting response."[12] The results of Kendler and D'Amato's study indicates that reversal shifts produced positive effects in the transfers.

From the viewpoint of the advertising manager, it is important to know the most efficient method of shifting consumer preferences. The proper understanding of psychological shift paradigms should reveal whether there is a difference in consumer learning with discriminations involving established products or new products. Equally important for the advertisers to know is how to hinder or to facilitate discrimination learning through the proper applications of relevant shift theories in advertisements. The next section explores this topic through an analysis of concept shifts.

Concept Shifts and Mediational Hypotheses

Reversal and nonreversal shitfs with human subjects are commonly referred to as "concept shifts." Concepts have been defined in terms of concept formation or concept learning. "Concept formation is taken to imply the acquisition or utilization, or both, of a common response to dissimilar stimuli."[13] Human behavior that is governed by concepts should require the same response to members of a set of similar, but not identical, stimuli. Experiments on concept formation have followed the general pattern of the discrimination-learning experiments."[14] Stimulus coding must be dealt with in some manner in a theory of discrimination learning. The learning of a response '...involves both the capacity to distinguish situations in which the response is appropriate and the capacity to make the response."[15] Concept learning implies both an ability to distinguish and an ability to respond to changes in reinforcements. A concept-shift task is a concept learning task in which "...the cue-response associations being reinforced are changed or 'shifted.'"[16] "Once such a concept has been learned, as evidenced by a large number of correct classifications, the experimenter may change the basis of classification and begin reinforcing the subject to a new scheme."[17] If the experimenter switches the responses, but the same concept remains as the relevant dimension, the shift is termed a reversal shift; an extradimensional shift involves the subject's responding to a new relevant concept.

Mediational Hypothesis

The explanation for discrimination learning focuses upon internal processes that mediate between a stimulus and a response. This approach to explaining discrimination learning assumes that the subject develops mediating (implicit) responses between a cue and a final response. This discrimination model is known as a two-stage mediational theory. In a two-stage model, the connection of a stimulus to a response is thought to be mediated by certain implicit responses. A two-state mediational hypothesis of discrimination learning fits the behavior of college students. The value of a mediational theory lies in its ability to account for the tendency of human subjects to execute a reversal shift.[18]

A representative mediational theory is found in the Kendler's article published in 1962.[19] According to mediational theory, adult subjects acquire an intermediate process during training which is an abstraction of the cues belonging to the relevant dimension. A reversal shift requires the subject to respond to the same dimension present during training, but the subject must learn to switch his responses. A mediational mechanism allows the subject to use a mediated response during a reversal shift. A reversal shift is made easier to accomplish with stronger mediational responses. An extradimensional shift causes the subject to acquire a new mediated response to a new dimension. Kendler and Kendler write:

> A nonreversal shift,...required the acquisition of a new mediated response, the cues of which have to be attached to a new overt response. Because the old mediational sequence has to be discarded and a new one formed, the nonreversal shift should be executed more slowly than a reversal shift.[20]

Verbal Labels

The term 'mediating response' is used with explicit reference to a verbal response in studies of verbal concept learning[21] Behavioral psychologists tend to view mediating responses as being primarily verbal. In verbal concept-learning, the mediational mechanism comes between the stimuli ...produced by a (previously learned) mediating response and the overt response.'[22] There are theoretical differences regarding the influence of verbal mediators on discrimination learning, but, most of the research in this area has been oriented toward "verbal labels."[23] The specific mechanism postulated was that the cues from the verbal labels along with the discriminative stimuli form a compound to which the subject responds."[24] It is easier to learn two separate labels for two different concepts that it is to learn one label for each concept.

The primary question asked in verbal mediational studies has been "...whether the accessibility of verbal representational responses (e.g., conceptual terms such as vegetable, clothing, etc.) will determine the ease with which reversal shifts are executed."[25] There is some evidence to support the view that verbal responses aid reversal shifts.

Instructions

There is evidence that reversal-nonreversal differences are eliminated by explicit instructions concerning the dimensions relevant to the discrimination problem.[26] Experiments with college students find a reversal shift easier to learn than an extradimensional shift. When subjects receive instructions about the discrimination problem, there is no difference found between extradimensional and reversal shifts. Reversal shifts were facilitated by the instructions which pointed out the appropriate observations.

James R. Erickson has studied the effect of instructions on concept identification.[27] Erickson gave subjects instructions concerning the solution to the discrimination problems. The instructions stressed that each stimulus would be classified according to the value of one or the other of the dimensions. Erickson explained to the subjects the dimensions along which the cues would be varied. "The studies that found a reversal shift to be relatively easy have for the most part, used rather sketchy instructions, telling the subject only that the experimenter would label the stimuli A or B...and that it was the subject's task to determine how the stimuli were labeled."[28] Subjects may solve their discrimination problem under brief instructions by merely learning the relevant dimensions.[29] Erickson found that with thorough instructions subjects learned an extradimensional shift easier than a reversal shift.

Advertising Implications

Advertising managers may improve product adoption by providing specific product information and detailed instructions to potential consumers. Since extradimensional shifts can be aided by giving the subjects information about the new relevant dimension, it may also be possible to switch a consumer's choice to a new product by pointing out exactly what the new cues will do for the consumer. Advertisers could use this information by telling the consumer the benefits that could be expected from using the product.[30] "...To show how not to use a product and also how to use a product may be very useful."[31] There are two approaches to the supplying of product information: (1) "the advertiser can tell the person to buy the product because it will do this or that for him;...or the advertiser can create a friendly, sincere, and understanding atmosphere which shows the benefits of the product...."[32]

Instructions may reduce consumer dissonance. "Individuals to whom additional positive information is provided during the process of decision-making will experience less dissonance than others.[33] Instructions and product information tend to make a buyer more confident in his decision making. Robert J. Holloway conducted an experiment in which he gave half of the subjects no information and the other half received product information that was relevant to the decision that they were asked to make. The effects of high inducement interacted with information to produce significant differences between the groups receiving information and those not receiving information. "When there was *low inducement*, the information effect was not apparent."[34] It can not be said with finality that all new products should be introduced to the market with a message pointing out all the benefits to the potential users. Since many products are consumed for their imagined qualities for satisfying wants, it might be impossible to develop a complete product description favorable to every consumer's psychic. Dirksen and Kroeger summarize this view in the following:

> ...advertisements are still one of the best sources of product information.... Whether or not more of the advertisements should emphasize product qualities in their appeals is a question which cannot be resolved on an overall basis, because there are too many ramifications involved in deciding on the appeal which each seller should use.[35]

Summary and Conclusions

The preceding literature review of psychological shift paradigms can be incorporated into advertising thought at two levels: (1) theoretical, and (2) applied. At the theoretical level, advertisers may be able to develop models based upon the rich shift paradigm literature. At the applied level, there are several findings in shift studies that seem to have direct import for advertisers who must develop advertising campaigns.

An example of an application of shift paradigm research was presented in the paper, and can be summarized by the following. Some discrimination shift findings are consistent across a wide range of experimental conditions; e.g., humans find reversal shifts easier to learn than extradimensional shifts. Even this finding is subject to qualifications. Instructions on the nature of the shift has allowed extradimensional shifts to be learned faster than reversal. A direct application of this psychological concept would show that new product acceptance would be better enhanced by the incorporation of specific product information in the advertisements.

This study has been an attempt to develop an area of psychological theory to fit the needs and requirements of advertising. Empirical testing of the appropriateness of the undertaking is beyond the scope of this paper. It is hoped that the idea of shift paradigms in a marketing context will generate future research to test the validity of the constructs and concepts.

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END OF SESSION III

SUMMARY OF THE PRESENTATION MADE BY: Herbert Zeltner,
Kenyon & Eckhardt

Forecasting and long-range planning are a necessity in today's marketplace--even though most of us are preoccupied with the present. Computers and technology make it easy to predict future events...but every year we see many forecasts thrown off by national and international problems and developments. Experts tend to overrate what can be accomplished in a few years and to underrate what can be accomplished in 10-25 years or longer.

America is becoming a more aware, better informed, more discriminating and more demanding nation. Business must improve its abilities to predict and to set objectives...and, generally, to plan (no matter how frustrating the task).

The following seem to separate companies which are successful from those which are not: (a) a top-management commitment to growth and to anticipation of needs, (b) an action plan--with realizable goals and established priorities, (c) the right person in charge of future plans and organization (someone with talent, seniority, drive, and clout), (d) the proper investment of time and money toward exploration, development, and testing, (e) a strong intelligence and information-gathering system (complete with timely information and feed back), (f) an effort to avoid self-delusion and a feeling of "vested interest"; and (g) discipline and tracking (dedication to a specific timetable and score card).

In the field of advertising education we need to: (1) determine the economic role of advertising--its costs and the ultimate benefits of expenditures, (2) determine the social role of advertising...and whether it's something to be encouraged or discouraged, (3) explain how advertising really works...and examine the "cause-and-effect" relationship between advertising, attitudes, and sales, making use of all available up-to-date technology, (4) clarify the government's role in marketing and advertising--in areas of morality, persuasion, and aesthetics; and (5) utilize our best human resources in forecasting and planning for the future.

SESSION IV: PERSPECTIVES ON INDUSTRY/EDUCATORS' COOPERATION

SUMMARY OF THE PANEL DISCUSSION BETWEEN:

John Del Mar,
American Association of Advertising Agencies

Jonah Gitlitz,
American Advertising Federation

Herbert Ahlgren,
Association of National Advertisers

The Educational Foundation of the 4A's is currently sponsoring academic research and working closely with advertising educators and 4A members to aid in the teaching, recruiting, and developing of students and future advertising industry employees. Various 4A committees have, over the last 20 years: (1) brought agency practitioners to college campuses, (2) arranged for teachers to work in agencies during summers and leaves of absence; (3) invited teachers to attend 4A regional conventions; (4) set up an awards program for Excellence in College Journalism; (5) published career booklets for students, guidebooks for agency/educator cooperation, and campus recruitment information for 4A members, (6) provided educators with 4A bulletins and newsletters, and (7) initiated the "Adopt-A-School" program to further the relationship between agencies and classrooms.

The American Advertising Federation is vitally interested in involvement with business, educators, and students. In 1973 the merger of the AAF with Alpha Delta Sigma was a major step forward. The now-annual national student advertising competition involves about 40 different college campuses. The AAF is also working on a job clearinghouse (to which students can send resumes), and is pursuing the idea of student summer internships and a national student honor society.

There's no magic formula for getting a job...but the ANA is increasing its cooperative efforts with educators by: (1) making literature available to colleges and universities (books on marketing, agency relations, creativity, media, and research, as well as presentations made before the FTC, and other relevant reports and studies) at a 40% educational discount; (2) investigating possibilities for opening to educators advertising seminars on professional development; and (3) examining other potential industry-educator projects whereby students and jobs can be matched. Increased communication is needed to determine just what kind of student is coming out of college advertising programs and what kind of employee the industry is seeking.

END OF SESSION IV

(SESSION V: ANNUAL BUSINESS MEETING)

SUMMARY OF PRESENTATION MADE BY: Harry Wayne McMahan,
International TV Consultant

There's a great need today for more real "creativity" in advertising; virtually everything can be duplicated in six months. Yet, there are a great many so-called creative commercials which win awards...but lose agencies. In television, entertainment is often needed to gain attention; but if the commercial doesn't contain a vital sales message, it can't be successful as a piece of advertising.

Name identification must come first in commercials. (A recent research study found that only 16% of TV viewers could remember the product name in a series of commercials.) Then, as the product becomes increasingly competitive, its name must be linked to a message (a unique selling proposition, a personality, or something else which sparks the imagination). Finally, it's important to remember that messages are carried in vehicles--and when the vehicle (be it entertainment, humor, or whatever) overpowers the sales message...the advertiser is in trouble.

Good advertising makes the product interesting...and the value of memorable advertising and advertising which has continuity across media cannot be overemphasized.

SESSION VI: PERSPECTIVES ON EMPLOYMENT

SUMMARY OF PANEL DISCUSSION BETWEEN:

Herbert Ahlgren,
Association of National Advertisers

Leo Bogart,
Newspaper Advertising Bureau

Elias Buchwald,
Burson-Marsteller

Douglas Johnson,
McCann-Erickson

Blake Byrne,
WJAR-TV, Providence

J. Carroll Bateman,
Insurance Information Institute

The job situation for advertising graduates is tight. "Top" students do stand a better chance of getting hired than do "mediocre" students, however... and there is some evidence of industry response to society's pressures for equal opportunity among women and minority groups.

In newspaper advertising, the situation appears to be a little brighter than it is elsewhere. Changing technology will mean changes in jobs for advertising specialists...and some new jobs will be established.

There is an increase today in the emphasis on public relations and on the value of "effective communication" in general. Also increasing are government regulations and legislation which will exert new pressures and challenges on advertising practitioners as issues such as health, ecology, and safety continue to make headlines.

Within advertising agencies, there is a trend toward fewer employees... but there is still a need for young people with creative and business backgrounds. Experience has shown there is great value in student internships and summer jobs in advertising...as well as in classroom projects involving agency and media personnel.

Because the competition for jobs is fierce, students are encouraged to: (1) get a broad, liberal education (not too technical); (2) seek out part-time experience prior to graduation; and (3) keep banging on doors. Sometimes all it takes is being at the "right place at the right time"--and it's important to remember that many "big" jobs started out very small.

Advertising and public relations are valuable marketing tools, with the development of high ethical standards they can form a true profession.

END OF SESSION VI

AN EVALUATION OF RECENT FEDERAL TRADE COMMISSION REGULATIONS UNDER THE FAIR PACKAGING AND LABELING ACT ("CENTS-OFF" REPRESENTATIONS)

by
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Associate Professor of Marketing

EDWARD L. MELNICK
Associate Professor of Statistics
School of Business
New York University

The effectiveness of many federal laws and regulations in the consumer interest are poorly evaluated. This paper reports on the second part of a before-and-after study evaluating the efficiency of recent Federal Trade Commission regulations (Federal Trade Commission, Federal Register, Vol. 36, Doc. 71-12284, June 30, 1971.) governing manufacturer "Cents-Off" promotional methods. A "Before" bench-mark was established from data collected in a 1969 nation-wide survey (Shoaf, F. Robert and Melnick, Edward L. "Retail Grocers' Pricing Responses to Manufacturer Initiated Cents-Off Promotions. *Journal of Consumer Interests*, to appear in 1974.) prior to the Federal Trade Commission rulings. Data for this study were obtained from a similarly designed regional survey of retail grocers' pricing practices in response to manufacturer initiated "Cents-Off" promotions.

The aim of this research is both specific and general. In specific, it enables one to evaluate the effectiveness of recent FTC regulations on Cents-Off promotions. More generally, by illustrating the viability of this approach, interest may be stimulated for more extensive research on the efficiency of other laws and regulations in the consumer interest.

BACKGROUND

The societal problem

Recent years have witnessed an increasing concern for deceptive promotions of consumer products. Active focal points for private and public scrutiny have been broadcast and print media advertising practices. Usually, these misrepresentations have been blamed on the manufacturer and/or advertising agency. But an often overlooked area of deceptive promotional practices is the *retailer's* misuse of the manufacturers' initiated discount savings, i.e., the "Cents-Off the Package" promotion or deal (hereinafter, the COP deal).

A COP deal is clearly printed on the package of a product (usually in outstanding color and large type-face) stating the manufacturer's discount price, e.g., "The Price on This Package Reflects 25¢ Off the Regular Price." The manufacturer discounts cost to the retailer, expecting that the savings will be passed on to the consumer. However, it was suspected that some retailers pocketed the discount, did not lower selling price, and thereby deceptively advertised a price discount as the COP deal package displayed on the shelf. The manufacturer, utilizing a fair, legitimate, and preferred promotional strategy, was in most cases powerless to control this situation.

Pre-regulation Benchmark Study

In 1968, commensurate with pressure from consumer interest groups, concerned manufacturers and Federal Trade Commission inquiries, the Consumer Research Institute, Inc., in cooperation with the College of Business and Public Administration, New York University sponsored a nation-wide study to determine how fairly the consumer was being treated in COP deals.

This study, conducted *prior* to the Federal Trade Commission regulations, consisted of a twelve-week longitudinal audit of price trends in 240 grocery stores in eight Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas throughout the United States. It is the 1969 study that establishes the benchmark or baseline for the situation as it existed *prior to* the Federal Trade Commission regulations.

Federal Trade Commission Regulations

Regulations were issued by the Federal Trade Commission in 1971, (*Wall Street Journal*, April 8, 1971, p. 4.) (Federal Trade Commission, *Federal Register*, Vol. 36, Doc. 71-122284, June 30, 1971.) followed by interpretive guidelines to take effect January 1, 1972. (Federal Trade Commission, *Federal Register*, Vol. 36, No. 233, Parts 502, 503, December 3, 1971.) (*Supermarket News*, January 3, 1972, p. 11.) Although the original restrictions have been moderated with regard to specific requirements concerning the wording of the COP deal message on the package, basically the intent and substance of the original regulations have remained. The manufacturer is restricted by frequency with which a given brand size can be placed on a COP deal in a given retail outlet. As well, it is the manufacturer's duty to withhold availability of COP deals in circumstances in which he knows (*or should have reason to know*) that the COP will be used for deception or frustration of value comparisons.

The intent of these Federal Trade Commission regulations on COP deals to assure retailers' complete compliance with the manufacturers' stated discounts is commendable. But, the packager or labeler is burdened with the almost impossible task of surveillance. The practicality of this encumbrancing requirement should be evaluated.

Present - Post-regulation Study

In 1973, the Retail Management Institute of New York University provided a research grant to permit the present authors to conduct a follow-up study for the purpose of determining the effect of these regulations. Practical constraints have limited the scope of the research to the New York - Northern New Jersey metropolitan area.

METHODOLOGY

Inasmuch as the 1969 national survey made *prior to* the Federal Trade Commission regulation was to serve as the Before-phase (baseline, benchmark) against which the present (1973) survey findings could be compared, the latter research plan corresponds closely with the former study.

Design of the Study

A twelve-week longitudinal audit was made of price trends in 120 stores within the New York and the Paterson-Clifton-Passaic Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA). Each store was audited on alternate weeks until a total of six visits had been completed.

Sample of Stores

The sample of 120 stores in the two SMSAs was stratified on the basis of store size. Forty large, forty medium and forty small stores were selected. In order to correspond with the initial 1969 study, large stores had six or more check-out stations serving the grocery department; medium size stores had three to five check-out stations. The remaining forty small stores had one or two checkout stations.

Selection of products for audit

The products audited were selected on the basis of several criteria: household products (a) corresponding to those in the original study; (b) with a history of frequent cents-off promotions; (c) consumed at all socio-economic levels; (d) which are staple items less frequently engaged in loss leader and short-term pricing manipulations, and (e) popular national brands in order to provide comparison between stores. Thirty-eight items were audited: two sizes of each--ten brands of laundry detergents, two brands of scouring powders, and seven brands of dishwashing liquid.

Collection of data

The data collected at each visit by the authors and student assistants consisted of the stores' prices and type of deal, if any, for each item (product-brand-size). Deals noted were: COP, In--or On--package discount coupons (on next purchase), premium attached, store's own price reduction, special displays, etc.

Six auditing visits on alternate weeks made it possible to record a given retailer's "regular" selling price for an item prior to and/or after either a COP Deal, In-package discount coupon, or other promotion technique. Thus, each item served as its own "control," i.e., a given product's regular selling price when not on a COP Deal or not carrying a discount coupon provided a criterion against which its price could be compared if it subsequently was engaged in a manufacturer initiated promotion. A total of 530 COP Deals and 223 In--and On--package discount coupons were ultimately recorded.

FINDINGS

Table 1 presents an overview of the results of the present research as compared to the survey conducted in 1969 prior to the FTC regulations.

TABLE 1

Comparison of Post-Regulation to Pre-Regulation Surveys

	Total			Store Size								
				Large			Medium			Small		
	No. of Stores	No. of COP Deals	%[a]	No. of Stores	No. of COP Deals	%[a]	No. of Stores	No. of COP Deals	%[a]	No. of Stores	No. of COP Deals	%[a]
1969 Pre-regulation Survey:												
All Stores	240	3,537	81	80	1,434	86	80	1,274	85	80	829	67
Chain Stores	91	1,475	88	46	821	89	33	570	87	12	84	82
Non-chain	149	2,062	76	34	613	83	47	704	83	68	745	65
1973 Post-regulation Survey:												
Stores audited	120			40			40			40		
COP not In-stock	52			26			19			7		
Stores with COP	68	530	65	14	100	84	21	181	70	33	249	53
Chain Stores	31	244	79	14	100	84	14	118	73	3	26	84
Non-Chains	37	286	52	0	0	--	7	63	65	30	223	49

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[a] Percent properly priced

First, it appears that FTC rulings have had the effect of reducing the number of stores handling the COP Deals. All 240 stores in the 1969 study carried COP Deals but only 68 stores (57%) out of the total 120 audited in 1973 had COP Deals on the shelves.

Second, it is possible that the FTC regulations have had an unforeseen effect of increasing reliance upon In--and On--package discount (on next purchase) coupons in place of the COP Deal. Of the 52 stores which did not handle COP Deals, 142 such discount coupons were recorded on detergents and dishwashing liquids--an average of 2.8 per store. In the 68 stores which carried COP Deals only 81 detergent and dishwashing liquid coupons were recorded--an average of 1.2 per store. However the commendable fact is that in not one single case out of 223 coupons analyzed was the product's regular price raised when the discount coupon was introduced. This was true of large, medium and small stores--chain or non-chain affiliated.

Third, the FTC guidelines have not had an appreciable effect on improving the relative performance of the type stores most negligent in passing the COP deals to the customers. In the initial 1969 study it was found that large (particularly chain) stores properly priced 89% of the COP Deals on their shelves, while the small (especially, non chain) stores properly priced around 65%. The present findings show the same relationships. The few large chains in the sample which continue to carry the COP Deals are passing the discount on to the consumer 84% of the time, while the small non-chains only properly priced about 50% of the COP Deals.

Another observation from the newly sampled data is that the medium size stores with commendable performance in 1969 exhibit a poorer performance record--both in the aggregate, and when examined by affiliation (chain, non-chain). Is it possible that the one effect of the FTC ruling on medium and small size stores was to discourage honest retailers from carrying COP deals?

Shoaf and Melnick (Shoaf F. Robert and Milnick, Edward L., "Retail Grocers' Pricing Responses to Manufacturer Initiated Cents-Off Promotions," Journal of Consumer Interests, to appear in 1974.) studied the predictability of a retailer's pricing practices as a function of his store type. In the present study we investigated the pricing practices not only as a function of store type but also considering the socio-economic characteristics of the customers as well. This analysis was conducted by studying the properties of linear discriminate functions on the normalized data (observation minus its mean divided by the standard deviation). Table 2 summarizes the results obtained by considering thirteen variables, seven store or product variables and six socio-economic variables, for classifying 530 COP deals properly priced versus those improperly priced. The derived function correctly classified 74% of the sampled data. The relative weights for the number of check out stations, store size and affiliation are consistent with the results presented in Table 1. The "observed socio-economic level of clientele" was a subjective appraisal--lower, low middle, middle class, upper middle, rich--made by the student auditors on their first visit to the store. It is interesting to note that the auditors' observations of clientele type with all its apparent biases (time of day, day of week, etc.) were more meaningful than the U.S. Census Tract data. (U.S. Census of Population and Housing 1970, PHC (1) - 146 New York, N.Y. and PHC (1) - 156 Paterson - Clifton - Passaic, N.J., U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Washington.) Finall as noted in the 1969 study, brand and package size appear to have little relevance for classifying the success rate of proper implementation of the COP deal.

TABLE 2

Source of Variation and Relative Weights
from Discriminant Analysis

Source	Mean of Properly Priced Deals	Mean of Incorrectly Priced Deals	Coefficient (relative weights) of Linear Discriminant Function
Number of check-out stations (1 to 9+)	.355	-.401	1.000
Store Size (small, medium, large)	.332	-.342	.781
Observed Socio-economic level of clientele	.060	-.185	.472
Affiliation (chain, voluntary, co-op, independent)	.342	-.350	.348
Percent Puerto Rican in Census Tract	.060	-.020	.273
Geographic (business, residential, outlaying, rural)	.008	-.129	.175
Package Size (small, large)	.073	-.105	.153
Store Size (in square feet)	.361	-.418	.136
Product (detergent, scouring powder, dish liquid)	.006	-.047	.084
Percent High School Graduates in Census Tract	-.029	-.016	.078
Median Income in Census Tract	.053	-.129	.035
Percent Negro	.038	-.001	.016
Product Brand	.022	-.043	.013

In order to more clearly indicate the relative influence of socio-cultural factors a second discriminant analysis was computed after deleting specific store description variables (size, check outs, affiliation). The results are presented in Table 3. The derived function correctly classified 73% of the sampled data.

The subjective judgment of the auditor (observed socio-economic level of the clientele) remains more valid than median income of the census tract as a predictor of COP Deal treatment. One explanation might be that in any census tract the less affluent tend to patronize one store and the upper income clientele shop in another store. Also inferred from this table is that the profile of the retail store that tends not to pass along COP Deal savings to the customer is the small non-chain store serving the less affluent Puerto

Rican. In New York and its environs the Puerto Rican represents the passive poor. The Negro although low on the economic ladder, has since the 1960's been very aware of retailers' practices and perhaps this awareness has had an intimidating effect upon the dishonest retailer. A more detailed analysis also indicated a poorer performance record in the wealthy suburban areas. This plus the obvious correlation between poverty and geographic location, might explain the relative importance of the geographic variable.

TABLE 3

Source of Variation After Deletion from Store Description*

Source	Mean of Properly Priced Deals	Mean of Incorrectly Priced Deals	Coefficient (relative weights) of Linear Discriminant Function
Observed Socio-economic level of clientele	.060	-.185	1.000
Percent Puerto Rican in Census Tract	.060	-.020	.731
Percent Negro in Census Tract	.038	-.001	.402
Geographic (business, apartment residential, outlaying residential, rural)	.008	-.129	.391
Percent High School Graduates	-.029	-.016	.246
Product (detergent, scouring powder, dish liquid)	.006	-.047	.200
Brand	.022	-.043	.126
Package Size	.073	-.105	.126
Median Income in Census Tract	.053	-.129	.035

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*deletes store affiliation, store size, number of check-out stations, size in square feet.

SUMMARY

The FTC rulings do not appear to have met their objectives. Comparing the 1969 pre-regulation survey to the 1973 post-regulation survey, it appears as if the rulings only discourage honest retailers from carrying COP deals while not improving the performance level of the dishonest retailers. This unexpected observation strongly suggests the necessity for follow-up studies on the effects of other rulings which too had been designed to protect the consumer.

TELEVISION VIEWING, SLEEPING HABITS, AND ENERGY CONSERVATION

by
DONALD W. HENDON
Columbus College, Georgia

Many solutions have been proposed to solve the United States' energy crisis, but a simple one has been overlooked--ending network TV programs at 10 p.m. in the Eastern and Pacific Time Zones, where about two-thirds of the population of the U.S. lives. A new prime time of 7-10 p.m. would be made uniform throughout the U.S. At the present time, a 7-10 p.m. prime time exists in the Central Time Zone, where people go to bed earlier than in the Eastern Time Zone.

Methodology

Using a randomly-selected sample of 77 respondents in Columbus, Georgia, in the Eastern Time Zone, and a random sample of 77 respondents in Auburn-Opelika, Alabama, in the Central Time Zone, a survey was undertaken in mid-November, 1973, just at the beginning of great national concern and publicity concerning the energy crisis. The cities were selected because they watch the same three network-affiliated Columbus TV stations. Although the questionnaires were essentially the same, changes were made to reflect differences in local times for watching the same TV programs.

Results

(1) Easterners go to bed for the night one hour later than Centralers. On weekday nights (Sunday-Thursday), average respondents in the Eastern Time Zone go to bed at 11 p.m., while those in the Central Time Zone go to bed at 10 p.m. On Friday nights, average Easterners go to bed at midnight, while average Centralers go to bed at 11 p.m. On Saturday nights, average Easterners retire at 12:30 a.m., while Centralers retire at midnight. Although residents of the Central Time Zone appear to go to bed an hour earlier than Easterners, the rising habits of both groups are the same. On weekdays (Monday-Friday), both groups rise at 7 a.m.; on Saturday mornings, they both rise at 8:00 a.m.; and on Sunday mornings, both rise at 8:30 a.m., on the average. Thus, it would appear that Easterners sleep one hour less than Centralers. It is assumed that Easterners consume one hour more energy than Centralers as a result.

(2) TV viewing is an important determinant of when to go to sleep. In both time zones, staying up to watch TV is a very important reason for not going to sleep earlier. In Columbus, 15% said this was the most important reason for respondents' choice of time to go to bed, 29% said it was the second most important reason, and 25% said it was the third most important reason, while in Auburn-Opelika, the respective figures are 16%, 39%, and 30%. Table 1 gives complete figures.

(3) Some Easterners would go to bed earlier if TV programs ended earlier, but few Centralers would do this. 19.4% of the Eastern Time Zone respondents

TABLE 1

Reasons Given for Choice of Time to Retire

Reason	Eastern Time Most Impt	 2nd Most	 3rd Most	Central Time Most Impt	 2nd Most	 3rd Most
Reading-Studying-School	31(1)	20(2)	15(3)	29(1)	18(3)	9(5)
Housework and Job	27(2)	10(5)	20(2)	28(2)	22(2)	20(2)
Watch TV	15(3)	29(1)	26(1)	16(3)	38(1)	29(1)
Sleep (Habit)	12(4)	14(3)	5(6)	10(4)	2(6)	9(6)
Opposite Sex	6(5)	12(4)	15(3)	9(5)	13(4)	11(4)
Entertainment	5(6)	10(5)	2(8)	5(6)	0(-)	7(7)
Friends	3(7)	5(6)	12(5)	3(7)	7(5)	13(3)
Bored	1(8)	0(-)	5(6)	0(-)	0(-)	2(8)
N =	75	55	39	76	60	45

(Note: Figures not in parentheses are percentages, and each column of these figures totals 100%. Figures in parentheses are ranks. Reasons were given in response to open-ended questions.)

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said they would go to bed earlier (time was unspecified) if network TV programs ended at 10 p.m. instead of 11 p.m., while only 4.9% of the Central Time Zone respondents indicated a willingness to go to bed earlier if network TV programs ended at 9 p.m. instead of 10 p.m. At the present time, respondents in the Eastern Time Zone stay up 2.61 nights per week to watch network TV programs which are telecast between 10 and 11 p.m., while they stay up 1.72 nights per week to watch the 11 p.m. newscast or other local shows between 11 and 11:30 p.m., and they stay up 0.82 nights per week to watch late movies, Johnny Carson, Dick Cavett, Jack Paar, ABC's Late Night World of Entertainment "specials," the Tomorrow Show, etc., all of which begin after 11:30 p.m. In the Central Time Zone, on the other hand, where network TV programs end at 10 p.m. instead of 11 p.m., respondents stay up 6.22 nights per week to watch network TV programs between 9 and 10 p.m., 3.07 nights per week to watch the 10 p.m. news or other local shows between 10 and 10:30 p.m., and 1.01 nights per week to watch shows beginning after 10:30 p.m., including Carson, Cavett, Paar, movies, Wide World, etc. In fact, residents of the Central Time Zone appear to object to the suggestion that network TV shows begin at 6 p.m. and end at 9 p.m. Only 4% of the respondents preferred this proposal, while 94% preferred the status quo. (2% had no opinion.) Apparently, 9 p.m. is too early to retire for the night, for 94.3% of these respondents indicated that they would not change their bedtime habits no matter what TV programming is changed. Only 4.9% of these respondents would go to bed earlier if network TV programs ended at 9 p.m. instead of at 10 p.m. Table 2 gives complete figures.

(4) Residents of both time zones appear to favor ending TV programs earlier to more "strenuous" energy conservation measures. It would appear that respondents feel that earlier TV programs would cause relatively less disruption of their habits and life-styles than other proposed energy conservation measures. Table 3 indicates that the Eastern sample rank "ending TV

programs at 10 p.m." sixth out of a set of seven alternatives that have been proposed to solve the energy crisis. However, when the respondents were asked to rank the same seven alternatives in the order they preferred to see put into action now, which would not cause too much immediate suffering and hardship on the part of the public, "ending TV programs at 10 p.m." rose to fourth place. In the Central Time Zone, "ending TV programs at 9 p.m." ranked 7th and 5th respectively, one place behind its Eastern rankings.

TABLE 2

Present and Future Rising and Retiring Habits, Including Reasons

	Eastern Zone	Central Zone
1. Average time to get up now		
Monday - Friday mornings	7:00 a.m.	7:00 a.m.
Saturday mornings	8:00 a.m.	8:00 a.m.
Sunday mornings	8:30 a.m.	8:30 a.m.
2. Average time to go to bed now		
Sunday - Thursday nights	11:00 p.m.	10:00 p.m.
Friday nights	12 midnight	11:00 p.m.
Saturday nights	12:30 a.m.	12 midnight
3. Number of nights per week staying up:		
Eastern Time Zone		
To watch network 10-11 p.m.	3.61	
To watch 11 p.m. news or half-hour local	1.72	
To watch network, local after 11:30 p.m.	0.82	
Central Time Zone		
To watch network 9-10 p.m.		6.22
To watch 10 p.m. news or half-hour local		3.07
To watch network, local after 10:30 p.m.		1.01
4. Time to go to bed if network ended at 10 p.m. instead of 11 p.m. (Eastern Zone only)	19.4% earlier	
	79.2% same time	
	1.3% later	
Time to go to bed if network ended at 9 p.m. instead of 10 p.m. (Central Zone only)		4.9% earlier
		94.3% same tim
		0.8% later
5. Central Time Zone preferences:		
Change to new prime time of 6-9 p.m.		4%
Keep status quo (prime time 7-10 p.m.)		94%
No opinion		2%
6. Opinions of respondents who have lived in both Central and Eastern Time Zones:		
Prefer 8-11 p.m. prime time	4%	
Prefer 7-10 p.m. prime time	90%	
No preference, no opinion	6%	

TABLE 3

Rank Preferences of Energy Conservation Measures

Proposed Measure	Eastern Time Zone Most Effective	Eastern Time Zone Implement Now	Central Time Zone Most Effective	Central Time Zone Implement Now
50 m.p.h. Speed Limit	1	2	1	2
Daylight Savings Time	2	1	2	1
Thermostats	3	3	4	4
Car Pools	4	5	5	3
Ration Gas	5	6	3	6
TV End Earlier	6	4	7	5
No Cars Downtown	7	7	6	7

(Note: Question 4 of the questionnaire asked: "Several solutions have been proposed to solve the U.S.'s present energy crisis. Here are 7 proposed solutions, in alphabetical order. Put these proposed solutions in the order that you think will do the most good (#1 for the best solution, #7 for the worst solution)." Question 5 asked: "Put these same proposed solutions to the energy crisis in the order that you prefer to see put into action NOW (#1 for the solution you prefer the most NOW, #7 for the solution you prefer the least NOW). Here, your primary concern should not be which solution will do the most good, but which can be implemented NOW without too much suffering and hardship on the part of the public. Again, the 7 proposed solutions are in alphabetical order.)" The proposed solutions, in alphabetical order, were: (1) Daylight Savings Time year round; (2) Have TV network programs end at 10 p.m. instead of at 11 p.m. (Eastern zone); (2) Have TV network programs end at 9 p.m. instead of at 10 p.m. (Central zone); (3) Make it a requirement for everybody to form car pools going to and from work; (4) Nationwide 50 m.p.h. speed limit for cars; (5) Outlaw cars from downtown areas in all cities; (6) Ration gasoline; (7) Set all thermostats at 65° in the wintertime and 75° in the summertime.)

Application of Findings to Public Policy

The main question is, "How much energy would be saved?" If respondents in the Eastern sample are representative of those in other Eastern and Pacific Time Zone cities, in which prime time is 8-11 p.m., then 19.4% of the people in these two time zones would go to bed earlier if network TV programs ended at 10 p.m. How much earlier is unknown. Several assumptions and simple mathematical calculations are necessary to determine how much energy would be saved by the new earlier-to-sleep habits. The Georgia Power Company supplied measurements at a randomly-chosen residential electricity-measuring substation in Columbus, Georgia, for four randomly-selected week-long periods during summer, winter, fall, and spring. Calculations indicate that 16.6% of all residential energy at that substation is used between 10 p.m. and 2 a.m. in summer, 13.9% in winter, 12.5% in fall, and 16.3% in spring. Thus, on a yearly basis, 14.8% of all residential energy at that substation is consumed between 10 p.m. and 2 a.m. Assuming that energy consumed by TV and by other electrical apparatuses such as electric lights (which are kept buring because residents are awake watching TV) is one-half of the total residential electricity consumed, then 7.4% of all residential energy consumed can be attributed either directly or indirectly to TV watching. This factor of one-half is based on the fact that certain energy-using apparatuses, such as the refrigerator, continue to consume energy during sleeping hours. If all of the 19.4% of the people in the Eastern Time Zone who said they would go to bed earlier did in fact go to bed earlier and at 10 p.m. (a questionable assumption), then 19.4% of this 7.4% TV-related energy might be saved. If the same event occurred in the Pacific Time Zone, then 1.4% (.194 x .074) of all residential electric power would be saved for the 2/3 of the nation in the Eastern and Pacific Time Zones, which means a 0.93% savings in residential electricity nationwide (.014 x 2/3).

The approximate figure of 1% seems to be in agreement with findings reported by the Wall Street Journal.[4] It reported that Consolidated Edison Company engineers estimate that year-round daylight savings time might save three to five billion kilowatt hours, or one-third of 1% of the nation's annual electrical consumption. It reported that others (unidentified) figure the savings as high as 2%. The Consolidated Edison figures were based on the assumption that people would switch on the lights an hour later on winter evenings. This assumption is similar to switching the TV and lights off an hour earlier year round, should network programs end at 10 p.m. instead of 11 p.m. Advertising Age[5] reports that unidentified public utilities have estimated that radio and TV sets can consume 7% to 9% of residential energy in San Francisco and New York. Furthermore, color and older TV sets consume more energy than black-and-white and newer models. There are more than 106 million TV sets in households, and 65.3% of all TV homes have color sets. There are more than 280 million radios in homes and offices, plus millions more in automobiles. It also reported an unidentified broadcast source that 35 million TV sets are in use from 6 to 7 p.m. If the government forced TV programs off the air during that hour, the energy conserved would be the equivalent of 15.7 million barrels of oil a year. An Associated Press story in the Columbus (Georgia) Ledger[6] quotes the A. C. Nielsen Company as saying that the average American household watches slightly more than six hours of TV each day, most of it during the evening hours. It also quoted the Edison Electric Institute, the major trade association of privately-owned light and power companies, as saying that TV viewing uses up slightly more than six percent of an average household's total annual electric use. If both figures are correct, then one percent of residential electricity per hour can be attributed to TV usage. Another Associated Press story in the Gainesville (Florida) Sun[7] quotes the New York City utility, Consolidated Edison, as saying if the owners of all New York City TV sets cut just one hour off their regular viewing schedule each day for a year, the city's need for oil would be reduced by 630,000 barrels, since Con Ed generates 70% of its electricity by burning oil. In late November, 1973, according to an Advertising Age[2] report, the Federal Communications Commission staff began to collect broadcasting and TV set energy use data at the request of FCC commissioners and the White House Office of Energy Policy. The OEP also wanted figures on viewers of late night programming for its conservation planning. TV Guide[1] reported some of the FCC findings, released in early January, 1974. The FCC found that

US radio and TV stations and home receivers consume 143 million kilowatt-hours of power daily, or about 3 percent of total US electric consumption. The remainder of the FCC report was not released as of that date.

Results of the present study suggest that if the timing of evening network TV programming were to be changed to 7-10 p.m. nationwide, about 1.4% of all energy consumed in residences in 2/3 of the U.S. might be saved. At the present time, in the Eastern and Pacific Time Zones, prime time begins at 8 p.m. and ends at 11 p.m., while in the Central Time Zone, where people go to bed an average of 60 minutes earlier, and sleep about one hour longer, prime time begins at 7 p.m. and ends at 10 p.m. It is suggested as a matter of public policy that the prime time of the Central Time Zone--7 to 10 p.m.--be adopted for all time zones of the U.S. (Exceptions would be made for live events such as sports.) The author, in late November, 1973, sent his findings to senators, congressmen, the FCC, the OEP, the wire services, newspapers, trade journals, the networks, lobbyists, magazines, and officials of the executive branch of the government, and urged adoption of a national prime time of 7 to 10 p.m. At the time of the writing, what action that may have been taken is unknown. It was urged, however, that Congress initiate legislation making it mandatory for prime time network TV programming to begin at 7 p.m. and to end at 10 p.m. throughout each time zone in the U.S. This move may save approximately 1% of the U.S.' residential energy consumption, for there is evidence that late retiring habits are associated with TV watching. Furthermore, people seem to regard this proposal as being less disruptive of their life-styles than other more drastic proposals, including lower speed limits and gasoline rationing. Furthermore, Eastern and Pacific viewers may prefer an earlier prime time once they are exposed to it. Table 3 shows the results of a question asked by an interviewer of a different random sample of 50 Columbus, Georgia residents who had lived at some point in their lives in the Central Time Zone. The question was: "Which one of these things do you prefer? (a) I prefer evening network TV programs starting at 8 p.m. and ending at 11 p.m. like in the Eastern Time Zone here in Georgia. (b) I prefer evening network TV programs starting at 7 p.m. and ending at 10 p.m. like back in the Central Time Zone. (c) I have no opinion or preference." 90% of the respondents in this group indicated a preference for the 7-10 p.m. programming, 6% had no preference, and 4% preferred the 8-11 p.m. programming.

Thus, the proposal contained in this paper may not inconvenience Eastern and Pacific viewers on the basis of residents of the Eastern Time Zone who had been exposed to earlier prime time of the Central Time Zone on a regular basis earlier in their lives, in fact, Eastern and Pacific viewers may prefer an earlier prime time once they have been exposed to it. Furthermore, the proposal is viewed as a conservation measure of relatively less hardship by Eastern viewers at least, so they may not be inconvenienced. Two parties would be inconvenienced, however--TV networks and local TV stations.

Networks would have to set up new programming origination feeds in the Central and Mountain Time Zones of the nation, instead of having the live feed come from New York City. The Los Angeles live feed already is in operation in the Pacific Time Zone, and TV Guide reported in 1971 that networks were considering a uniform prime time of 7:30-10:30 p.m. throughout the U.S. when the FCC's "prime time access rule" made the networks turn over one-half hour of programming time to local stations for their own use. Any possible inconvenience to the networks of four live feeds, one located in each time zone (or using the New York City feed at staggered times for the Eastern, Central, and Mountain Time Zones), may be balanced by higher ratings in their last hour of programming time. Higher ratings may occur since Centralers watch 9-10 p.m. programs an average of 6.22 nights per week, while Easterners watch 10-11 p.m. programs an average of only 3.61 nights per week. The networks could charge more for higher-rated programs in their last hour program block.

Local TV stations in the Eastern and Pacific Time Zones would probably be inconvenienced most, and their profitability may be adversely affected. These Eastern and Pacific stations now have one extra hour of local time (7-8 p.m.) to sell before network programming starts at 8 p.m., relative to stations in the Central Time Zone whose network programming begins one hour earlier at 7 p.m. As a matter of public policy, gradually-phased-out subsidies could be made by the government to local TV stations in these two time zones, based upon necessity, to compensate them for any potential loss of revenue gained from selling local (non-network) time between 7 and 8 p.m.

The proposal made in this paper is not without precedent. NBC Nightly News reported on November 23, 1973, that a European nation has stopped all late (undefined) movies on TV in the interest of saving energy. Advertising Age[3] quotes unidentified sources at one TV network in the U.S. as saying that the world-wide energy crisis has forced, or may force, broadcasters in Europe and Japan to "lop off" some telecast hours. It also reported that KTVW-TV, serving the Seattle-Tacoma market, has voluntarily decided to end its broadcast at midnight, effective December 3, eliminating 13 hours per week of telecast time.

Finally, Senator Henry Jackson's proposed energy bill approves as an energy-saving step "a ban on all advertising enrouraging increased energy consumption," at least at the time of this writing. Advertising Age[5] reports that although utility advertising is probably what the Senator had in mind, no one is really certain. It is possible that the bill may be interpreted to include network advertising after 10 p.m., although the Advertising Age writer did not think of this possibility; if not, new legislation may be needed to implement the suggestions of this paper.

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APPLICATION OF ADVERTISING TECHNIQUES IN THE SOLUTION OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

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Advertising, as an element in the promotional mix, is part of the communication function of marketing. It can be used to communicate information about the existence of social problems, the background of the situation, suggested solutions, and how an individual can get involved in implementing the solution. In communication designed to sell a product or service, appeals are used which are expected to draw positive reactions from the audience. Appeals must do the same job in communications relating to social problems. The important factor to remember in selecting appeals is that the individual is being asked to make a committment of himself which has ramifications in terms of acceptance or ostracization by others now and in the future.

The purpose of this paper is to consider the use of advertising as a vehicle for generating support for proposed solutions to social problems. Five major aspects will be considered: 1) Major Objectives of Advertising in Implementing Social Programs; 2) Similarities and Differences with Product and Service Oriented Advertising; 3) Special Problems in Implementing the Communication Process; 4) Special Problems in Evaluating Results; and 5) Improving the Effectiveness of the Application of Advertising in Social Problem Areas.

Major Objectives of Advertising In Implementing Social Programs

Advertising developed to promote solutions to social problems may have one of several objectives:

1. To solicit contributions to support existing programs designed to solve a social problem.
2. To persuade individuals to publicly commit verbal and overt expressions of support for programs designed to solve social problems.
3. To change existing attitudes concerning a social problem.
4. To communicate information regarding program benefits available to individuals who are disadvantaged because of the social problem.
5. To help implement a change from a voluntary to a non-voluntary social program.

The success of advertising in achieving these objectives varies.

Advertising has been most effective in:

1. Getting individuals involved in the solution of social problems when it has served as a vehicle for dispensing information concerning rewards and punishments imposed by authorities in charge.

2. Helping to raise money for social projects when no other personal involvement by the individual is required.
3. Communicating reasons for change to non-voluntary social programs.

Advertising has been less effective in:

1. Involving individuals in the solution of social problems when involvement is voluntary and no enforceable reward or punishment system exists.
2. Helping communicate the need for attitude changes relating to social problems when change is voluntary or semi-voluntary.
3. Achieving an attitude change within a select audience.
4. Obtaining the desired response to information communicated to those disadvantaged because of the social problem.

Similarities and Differences with Product & Service Oriented Advertising

In the zeal to use advertising as a tool in seeking and implementing solutions of social problems, it is often overlooked that these "market situations" differ from those encountered in selling products and services.

The differences include: 1) the purchase of a product or service doesn't commit the individual to a position on a topic which may be controversial. If in response to marketing efforts the individual buys a product or service and is dissatisfied, he simply does not repeat the action and no real damage is done to his self-image. But, if an individual is persuaded to offer verbal or overt support for a proposed solution to a social problem or cause, this involves a commitment of himself and his self-image. To later admit he made a mistake in this commitment, results in a change in the social dimension of his self-image. This has a negative effect on the individual's self-image. 2) the purchase of a product or service does not generally put an individual in danger of being verbally or physically attacked. Identification with a position on a social problem can place the individual in danger of being ridiculed or ostracized and may result in economic and/or social hardship. Support of a position places the individual, in varying degrees, in possible opposition to those he admires, respects, or fears. The price of his commitment is an investment of part of himself, rather than a monetary expenditure.

Though the job of selling an individual on the need and way to solve a social problem is much more difficult than selling a bottled soft drink or an after-shave lotion, some similarities do exist. The similarities include: 1) Other groups seeking support for social problem solutions and opponents of the current position are "competing" for the individual's attention and involvement. 2) "Packaging" of the solution procedure is important in differentiating one group's "offer" from opposing groups. 3) "Pricing" must be considered appropriate by the individual. The "price" of his involvement, whether in monetary terms or personal time and energy, must be perceived as a "fair price." 4) The "place" to implement involvement must be clearly defined. It is easy for the individual to say: "I would help, but I don't know where to start or what I can do."

Both similarities and differences need to be taken into account in implementing the advertising program. Each part of the communication process must be examined and analyzed to determine the appropriate approach to successful implementing of the campaign.

Special Problems in Implementing the Communication Process

There are special problems associated with correctly and successfully implementing each step in a non-personal communication process designed to help implement a social program. A modification of the traditional non-personal communication process is desirable. The traditional communication process is pictured in Figure 1 and the suggested modified process in Figure 2.

Figure 1

Traditional Communication Process(1)

SOURCE	ENCODING	TRANSMISSION OF MESSAGE	RECEPTION	DECODING

Three fundamental considerations underlie the effective utilization of the communication process to promote solutions to social problems.

1. Determining the objective of the advertising.
2. Determining the current attitudes of the target market concerning the social problem and suggested solutions.
3. Determining the alternatives competing for the attention of the target market.

The Objective of the Campaign

The given objective of the campaign influences the content and role of the advertising.

Objective: Raising Money. Advertising has been a very successful tool for use in soliciting monies to help fight social problems. Successful campaigns have been developed and implemented overtime for organizations including the Red Cross, Negro College Fund, United Community Campaign, and UNICEF. Emphasis in the advertising is based on the appeal to give in order to help others. Emotional appeals stressing the differences between the audience and the disadvantaged have been used effectively when the objective is to create an awareness of the need rather than instilling guilt feelings. Any suggestion of guilt may result in rejection of the message by the audience. The giving of money represents parting with external materials rather than contributing part of ones self. The activity can be completed in private and kept private. The role advertising can play as an agent for communicating the need for monies to support social efforts is summarized in Figure 3.

Figure 2

MODIFIED COMMUNICATION PROCESS FOR IMPLEMENTING
SOCIAL PROGRAM SOLUTIONS

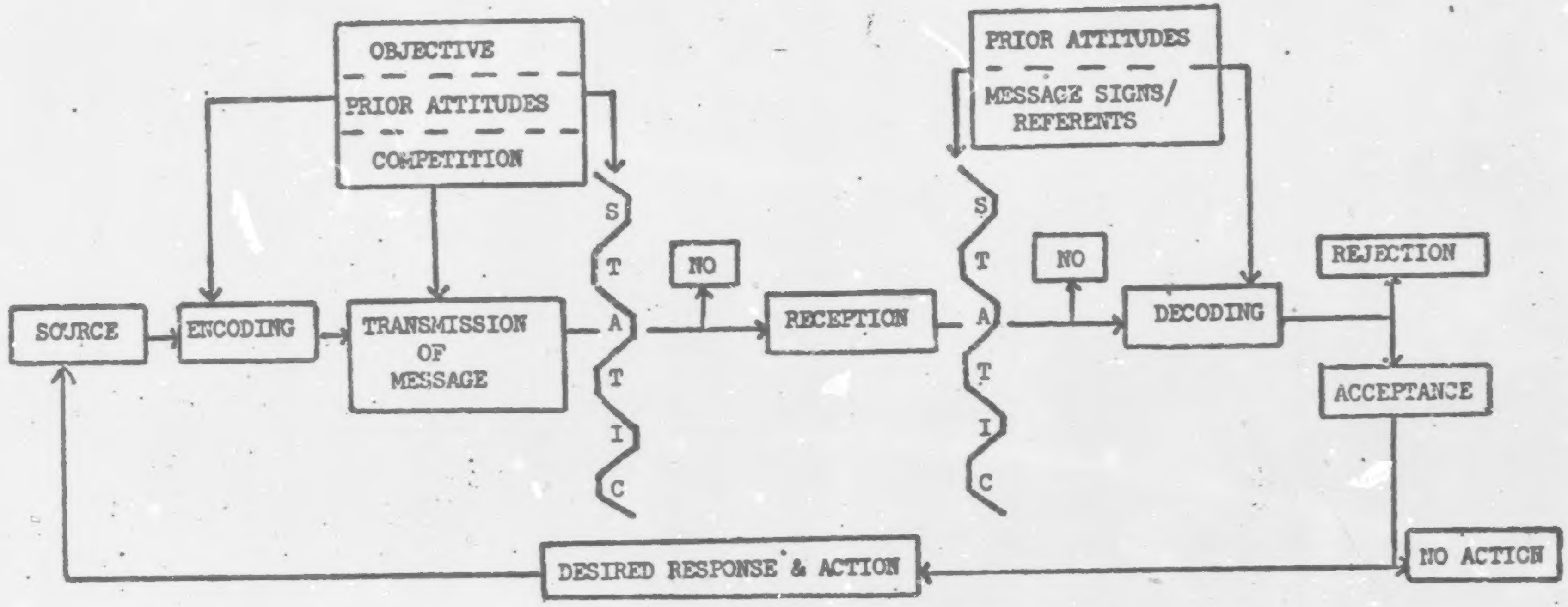
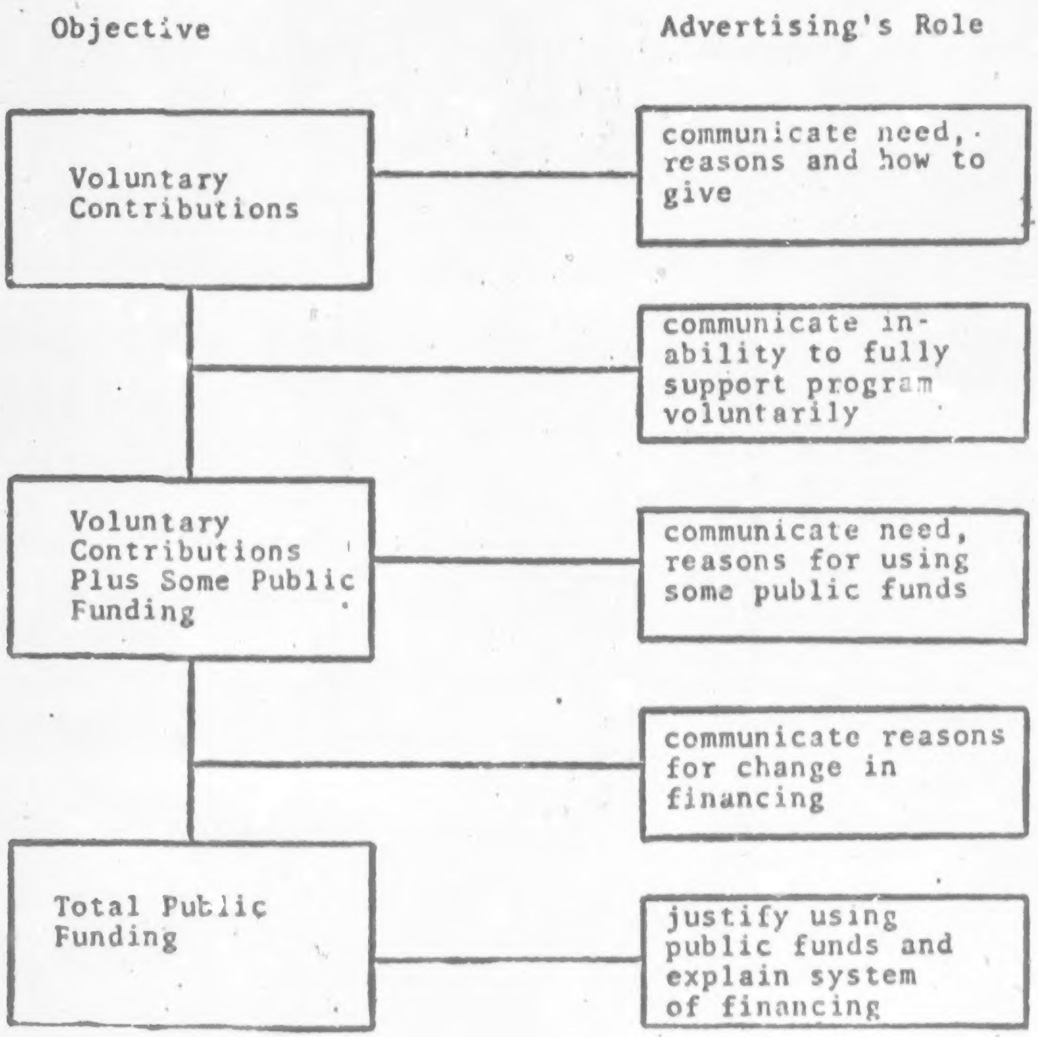

OBJECTIVE
PRIOR ATTITUDES
COMPETITION
SOURCE
ENCODING
TRANSMISSION OF MESSAGE
S T A T I C
NO
RECEPTION
PRIOR ATTITUDES
MESSAGE SIGNS/ REFERENTS
S T A T I C
NO
DECODING
REJECTION
ACCEPTANCE
NO ACTION
DESIRED RESPONSE & ACTION

Figure 3

THE ROLE OF ADVERTISING IN RAISING MONEY


Objective
Advertising's Role
Voluntary Contributions
communicate need, reasons and how to give
communicate inability to fully support program voluntarily
Voluntary Contributions Plus Some Public Funding
communicate need, reasons for using some public funds
communicate reasons for change in financing
Total Public Funding
justify using public funds and explain system of financing

Objective: Personal Involvement. If the objective of the advertising is to get the person to give of himself in terms of investing time and energy, information must be communicated which persuades the individual that his self-image will be enhanced or maintained by such involvement. If survival is the most basic human instinct, maintenance and enhancement of the self-image is the next most fundamental.(2) Self-image refers to all perceptions of self a person has at a given instant. To effectively use an approach involving self-image, the individual's self-image must be understood. When advertising has been used to accuse the individual of being less than considerate of others in his reaction to a social problem, the resulting threat to his self-image has been rejected and the appeal voided. Several campaigns which have emphasized unpleasant aspects of human behavior have ultimately been changed to incorporate less threatening and personal themes. The National Safety Council's drunk driver campaign introduced in 1970 used the theme "Scream Bloody Murder" and cited "all the things drunk drivers had done for society."(3) Situations were used in the campaign which pictured how drunk drivers brought families together at funerals and helped eliminate some of the overcrowding in schools. The theme was changed in 1973 to a narrative, with musicial background, featuring a young woman named Janie whose life was ended "on a lonely road by a man drunk out of his mind." An anti-liter campaign featuring hogs as litering citizens met with resistence and the campaign was modified to feature "real" people. When "others" are shown as the villains and no direct threat is made against the individual's self-image, there is less negative reaction. There is a danger, though, that the individual will have a reaction that: "It is the other guy who does it, not me--so what can I do?" Advertising's role as an agent for communicating the need for personal involvement is summarized in Figure 4.

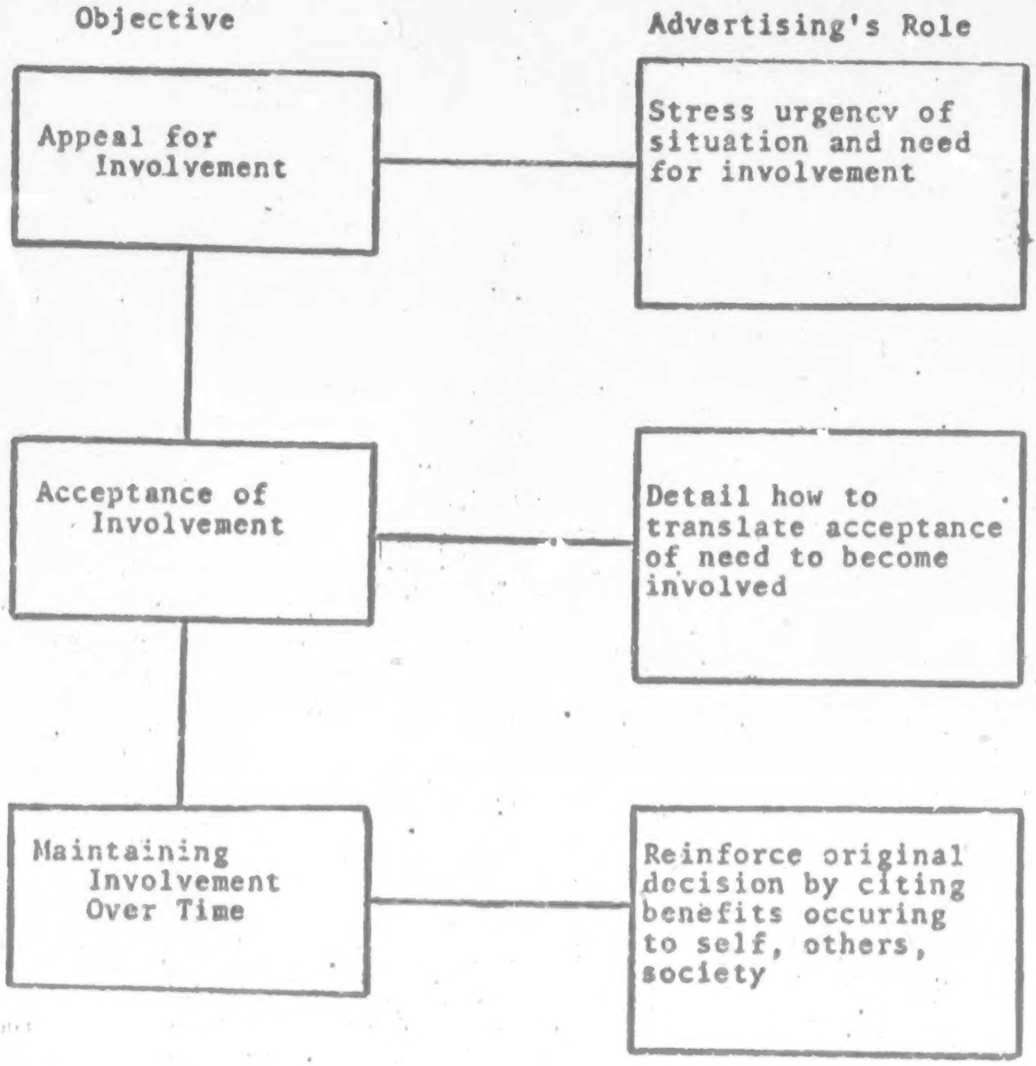
Objective: Change Existing Attitudes. Research on the audience may indicate whether the basic step in obtaining personal involvement requires a general change in attitudes. The most difficult role to assign to advertising is that of helping to change attitudes. Yet, in terms of the social problems faced by society today, this is one of the major tasks assigned to advertising. In attempting to achieve this attitude change, the individual must deal with several problems relating to the nature of attitudes.

Attitudes are a predisposition to evaluate some symbol or object or aspect of an individual's world in a favorable or unfavorable manner.(4) In other words, attitudes affect behavior. To change an individual's behavior in regards to a particular object or situation, we need to understand how to alter his attitudes. This alteration may involve any one or a combination of the three components of an attitude. The components are the affective (one's evaluations of), the cognitive (one's knowledge of), and the behavioral (one's predisposition to act toward the object of the attitude). One or more of these components need to be altered if the attitude is to be changed. In selecting the approach to use for purposes of determining attitude change, the developer of the advertising must first understand the functions which attitudes perform for the individual. Daniel Katz defines four major functions of attitudes.(5)

1. Instrumental adjustive or utilitarian function; people strive to maximize rewards in the external environment and minimize the penalties. To change such attitudes, the advertising must help generate one of two

Figure 4

THE ROLE OF ADVERTISING IN SECURING PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT


Objective
Advertising's Role
Appeal for Involvement
Stress urgency of situation and need for involvement
Acceptance of Involvement
Detail how to translate acceptance of need to become involved
Maintaining Involvement Over Time
Reinforce original decision by citing benefits occuring to self, others, society

conditions: 1) the attitude and related activities must no longer provide the former level of satisfaction; or 2) the individual level of aspiration has been raised.

2. Ego defensive function: a person protects himself from acknowledging the basic truths about himself or the harsh realities in his external world. The usual procedures for changing attitudes and behavior have little positive effect upon attitudes geared to ego defenses. Three procedures which may have some effect are: 1) removal of threat; 2) ventilation of feelings; or 3) individual acquires insight into his own defense reactions. The use of advertising has been better as a means of supplying information and emphasizing advantages of certain courses of action rather than in changing defensive attitudes.

3. Value-expressive function: individuals derive satisfaction from expressing attitudes appropriate to their personal values and to their self-image. The advertising, to be effective, must give clarity to the individual's self-image and help him mold the self-image closer to his basic desire. In order to change this type of attitude, advertising needs to generate one of two conditions: 1) some degree of dissatisfaction with one's self-image, or 2) some dissatisfaction with old attitudes as being inappropriate to one's values.

4. Knowledge function: individuals need to give adequate structure to their world through the search for meaning and understanding. Advertising communication can help create the condition where the inadequacies of existing attitudes to deal with new and changing situations are evident.

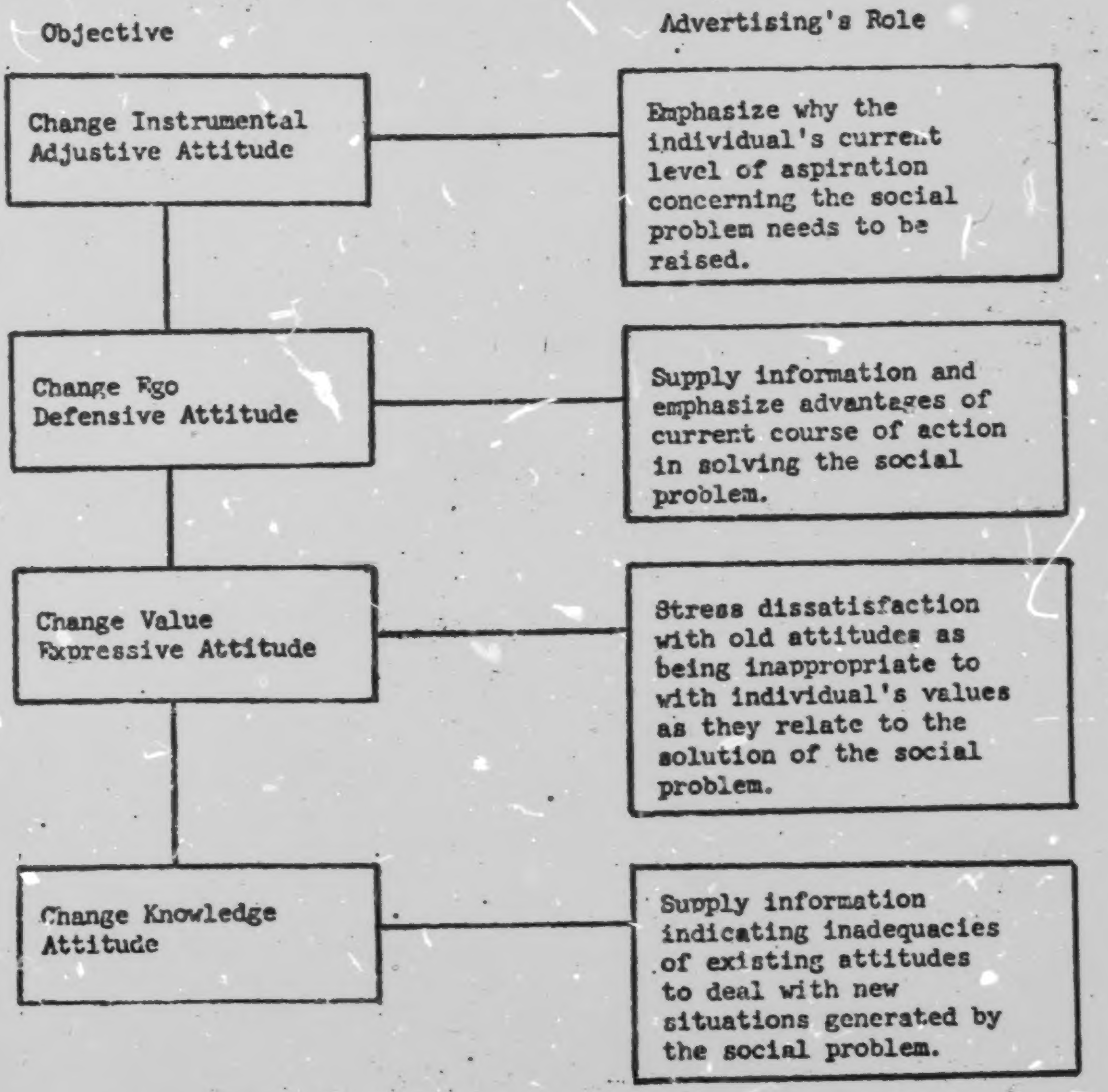
The role advertising can play as an agent for changing existing attitudes is presented in Figure 5.

Objective: Communicate Information to Disadvantaged. Advertising, effectively used, communicates information regarding program benefits available to individuals disadvantaged because of the social problem. The success of the communication depends on: 1) the communicator's understanding of the audience to be reached and their attitudes concerning their situation, 2) selection of words and cues for message content which are acceptable and understood by the audience, 3) selection of a media combination to which the audience has access, and 4) selection of appeals which do not make the audience feel they must give up their self-respect in order to take advantage of the program. Lack of attention to these areas results in ineffective advertising development. This lack of attention resulted in some severe communication problems in the campaigns designed to communicate information about participation in Food Stamp Programs, Family Planning Programs, and Minority Hiring and Training Programs. Figure 6 contains a summary of advertising's role as an agent for communicating program benefits to the disadvantaged.

Objective: Implement Change to Non-Voluntary Program. Some social problems require movement from appeals for voluntary involvement to non-voluntary or mandatory involvement. This evolution often results from the failure of a voluntary appeal campaign to stimulate the desired level of involvement. If the problem is not resolved over time, authorities move to make involvement more mandatory until it is finally mandated through legislation. Advertising may be used as the vehicle for communicating the reasons

Figure 5

THE ROLE OF ADVERTISING IN BRINGING ABOUT CHANGES IN ATTITUDES


Objective
Advertising's Role
Change Instrumental Adjustive Attitude
Change Ego Defensive Attitude
Change Value Expressive Attitude
Change Knowledge Attitude

Emphasize why the individual's current level of aspiration concerning the social problem needs to be raised.

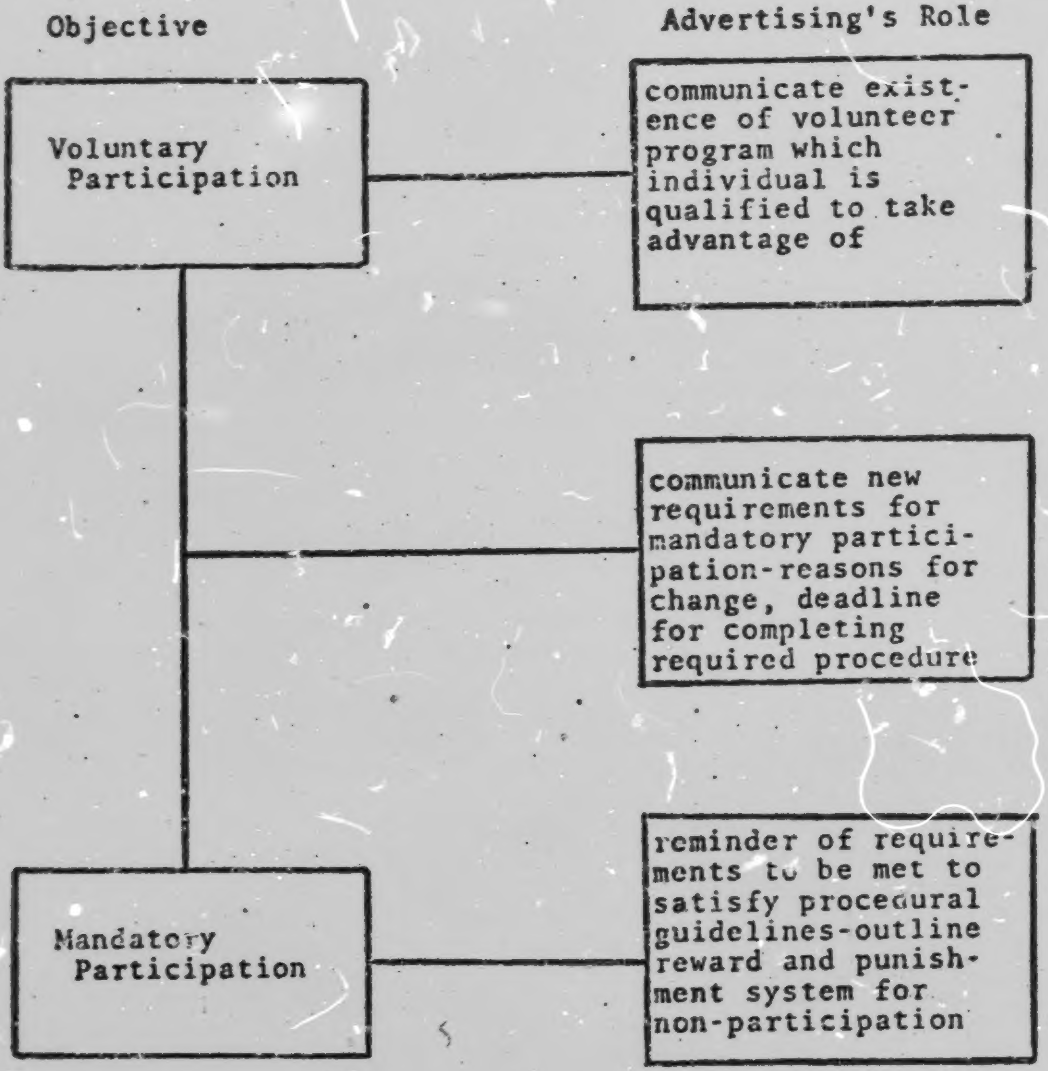
Supply information and emphasize advantages of current course of action in solving the social problem.

Stress dissatisfaction with old attitudes as being inappropriate to with individual's values as they relate to the solution of the social problem.

Supply information indicating inadequacies of existing attitudes to deal with new situations generated by the social problem.

Figure 6

THE ROLE OF ADVERTISING IN COMMUNICATION OF INFORMATION TO THE DISADVANTAGED


Objective
Advertising's Role
Voluntary Participation
communicate existence of volunteer program which individual is qualified to take advantage of
communicate new requirements for mandatory participation-reasons for change, deadline for completing required procedure
Mandatory Participation
reminder of requirements to be met to satisfy procedural guidelines-outline reward and punishment system for non-participation

behind the change to a non-voluntary program. This situation has occurred recently in relation to gasoline rationing in certain sections of the United States.(6) The evolution has been accelerated in the case of the present world energy shortage. Advertising has been an excellent tool for communicating information concerning reward and punishment systems associated with involvement and non-involvement in mandatory programs. The role of advertising in helping to implement change to non-voluntary social programs is summarized in Figure 7.

The greatest success has come in campaigns oriented to raising money, dispensing information about rewards and punishments associated with involvement and non-involvement, and in communicating information related to reasons for change to mandatory social programs.

Current Attitudes

To effectively communicate with the target audience, the designer of the advertising campaign must understand the attitudes of the group toward the social problem and the proposed solution. Reception of the message, decoding and the resulting action will be heavily influenced by prior and current attitudes.

To change an existing attitude is a complex process for attitudes once formed become resistant to change. The learning theory found in general experimental psychology appears especially useful for designing advertising directed toward attitude change.

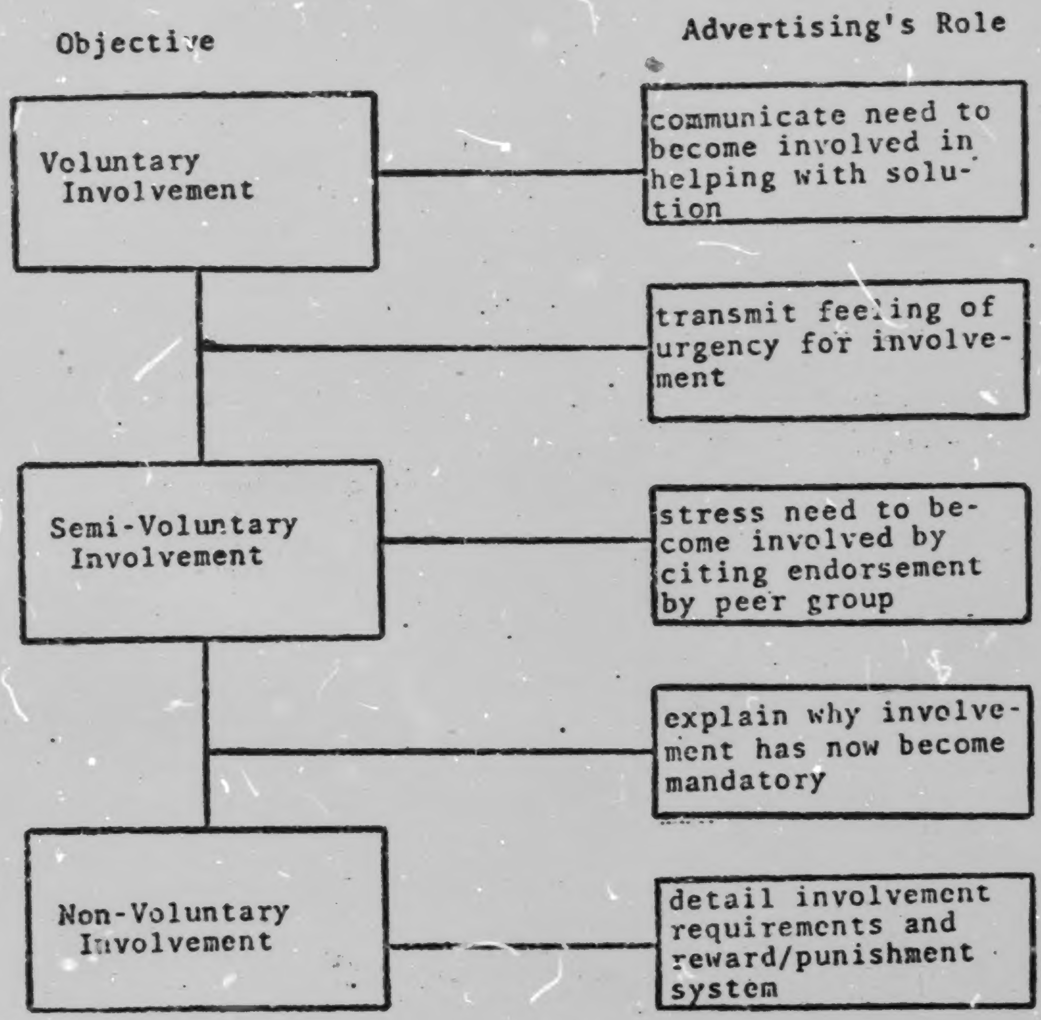
The initial comprehensive work in this area was done by Hovland, Janis and Kelley and reported in their work Communication and Persuasion.(7) They identified four major aspects of attitude change which are directly related to the communication function of advertising.

The first aspect involves the characteristics of the source of a communication which can affect attitude change due to creditability of the communicator. Creditability takes the form of expertness and trustworthiness of the person or medium presenting an appeal to the audience. The lower the creditability associated with the source the more biased the source appears. Creditability is especially vital in selecting spokesmen for use in advertising relating to the solution of a social problem. If the individual lacks creditability with a majority of the audience, or if the creditability is low, the objective of the message may be defeated by lack of acceptance on the part of the audience. This consideration also extends into selection of a medium to carry the message. The medium should reach the desired audience and also complement the nature of the message, not detract from it.

The second aspect involves the nature of the communication and two different ways in which motivational aspects of the communication itself can affect attitude change. The first of these is arousing fear. Minimal appeal to fear is thought to have greater positive effects in producing change, much less of an emotion effect on the audience, and much greater resistance to counterarguments than does moderate or strong appeals to fear. The lack of effectiveness of strong appeals to fear has been attributed to the high degree of emotion aroused in the audience which can lead them to ignore the

Figure 7

THE ROLE OF ADVERTISING IN IMPLEMENTING CHANGE TO A NON-VOLUNTARY SOCIAL PROGRAM


Objective
Advertising's Role
Voluntary Involvement
communicate need to become involved in helping with solution
transmit feeling of urgency for involvement
Semi-Voluntary Involvement
stress need to become involved by citing endorsement by peer group
explain why involvement has now become mandatory
Non-Voluntary Involvement
detail involvement requirements and reward/punishment system

importance of the threat.(8) Advertising which uses strong fear appeals in suggesting solutions to social problems has proven ineffective in many cases simply because the audience ignores the threat. In 1968-69, the National Safety Council used the theme "What's Your Excuse?" and graphically illustrated what happened to people who didn't use seat belts. A study for the period 1967-69 indicates seat belt usage dropped from 35 percent to 34 percent.(9) A less fear oriented "Buckle Up" theme was introduced in 1972. Fear was absent from the 1973 theme, "Show Me You Love Me." Another fear oriented campaign, anti-smoking, also appears to have encountered resistence. A report issued by the National Clearinghouse for Smoking and Health in January, 1974, indicated the annual total of cigarettes smoked in the United States had increased from 524 billion in 1964 to 583 billion in 1973.(10) The other motivational variable is salience of group norms. Heightened awareness of group membership can effect resistance to persuasion counter to the group's norms. When salience is high there is more resistance to counterarguments than when salience is low. The designers of the advertising message must take into consideration the degree of group membership awareness exhibited by individuals in the audience. Counterarguments should be structured with the degree of salience in mind.

The general organization of the communication to an audience is cited as the third aspect. Presenting one-sided versus two-sided arguments has been investigated in a series of studies.(11) Conclusions indicate that giving people two-sided presentations for disregarding later counterpropaganda is more effective in producing sustained attitude change than when only a one-sided presentation is provided. Other examples of research suggest that one-sided and two-sided presentations have different effects on the acceptance of the implications of subsequent information(12) and that, in general, people of higher intelligence are more persuaded by two-sided arguments.(13)

In presenting arguments to change the individual's attitude toward a social problem, arguments which may be presented by opponents should be included. In this way, the audience will be less likely to note opposing points of view presented in opposing advertising because they have already been exposed to the idea. In terms of preserving attitude change, it is better if both sides of the question are presented in the communication.

The final aspect concerns responses of the audience to the communication, subdivided into overt expression of acceptance of the new opinion and the degree of retention of opinion change. The more overt the expression of acceptance of the new attitude on the part of the individual, the more likely the person is to retain the new attitude. The use of advertising to change an individual's attitude concerning a social problem should result in some overt expression by the individual. This has the effect of publicly identifying him with others who share his attitude in relation to the social problem and will help reinforce the attitude change over time. The advertising can be used over time to keep reinforcing the attitude change which has occurred. This is vital to counter opponents who will continue to seek to change attitudes to more closely reflect their point-of-view. Many individuals who are converted to working on a social problem through attitude change are lost due to lack of reinforcement.

A change in attitudes requires a change in the individual's self-image. When the attitude to be changed is closely identified with the self-image the tendency will be for the individual to avoid change. If the change is not totally voluntary, it may be accomplished through a combination of approaches. If significant group pressure can be exerted to bring about attitude change, then the individual may accept such change even though it means a change in self-image. For this situation to occur, the group bringing pressure must be perceived by the individual as an important source of positive and negative sanctions. When change is required by an authority beyond the control of the individual, the threat of sanctions from that authority can force compliance and, in effect, result in the desired attitude change. Advertising can be used in helping to bring about attitude change in voluntary and semi-voluntary situations. But, care must be exercised in identifying the appropriate attitude function involved and in selecting proper procedures for bringing about the desired change. In non-voluntary situations, the role of advertising is to communicate the rules, reasons and possible sanctions as laid down by the authority. Even in this situation, outright threats should be avoided in an effort to bring about a smooth and less abrasive changeover in attitudes.

Competition With Other Alternatives

The individual can receive only so many of the advertising messages targeted to him. He must pick and chose those messages to receive; the remainder are not perceived. The designer of the advertising supportive of a social solution must recognize his design problems include not only interpretating the objective and determining the existing attitudes but, also the competing messages directed to the target group. These competitors include: 1) other groups attempting to recruit individuals for monetary or physical involvement in social problem programs, 2) commercial advertisers trying to attract attention to products and services, 3) physical and mental state of the individuals when the message is transmitted and reception is desired; 4) concerns and activities relating to everyday life. Obviously the last two competitive sources are more difficult to counter than the first two. The commercial advertiser represents an additional source of confusion and adds to the clutter which intensifies the static barrier which needs to be penetrated in order to gain the individual's attention. This is especially evident when the transmission channel involves mass media such as television, magazines, or newspapers. The major source of competition consists of other social program advertising. The designer can relate to competition by trying to design his message to be more attention getting, interest generating, desire stimulating, and action resulting. This is especially important given the limited monetary and physical resources available to most individuals for investment in social programs.

To overcome these competitive factors, the advertising campaign needs to:

1) be readily accessible to the individual. This requires knowledge of which transmission channels receivers regularly have access to.
2) present ways in which the individual can protect, enhance or avoid a threat to self-image. The closer to self the message seems, the greater its attention getting capacities.
3) represent a constrast to other communication attempting to attract the individual's attention.

The three considerations cited have definite impacts on the development of an effective communication process in the form of an advertising campaign

Figure 8a

MODIFIED COMMUNICATION PROCESS - OBJECTIVE: RAISE MONEY

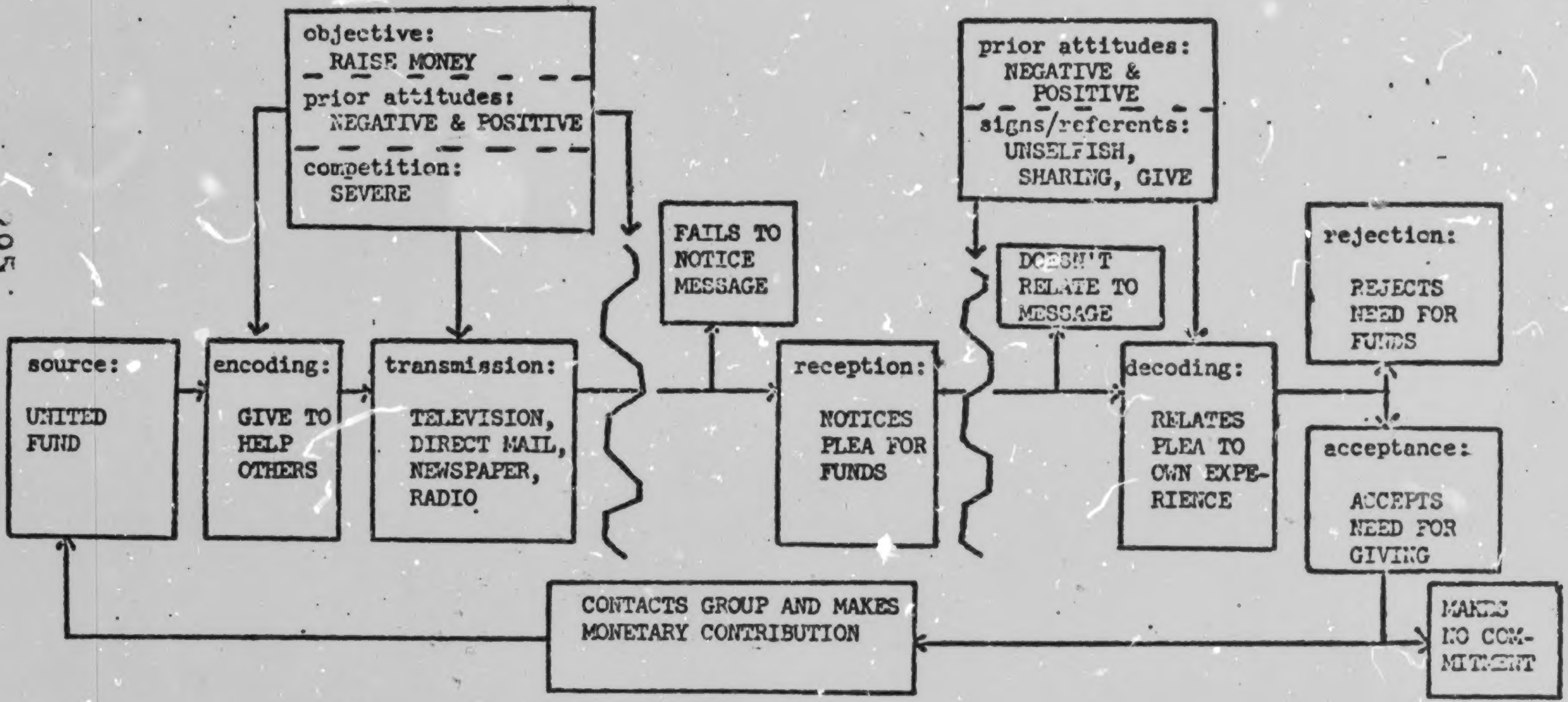

objective:
RAISE MONEY
prior attitudes:
NEGATIVE & POSITIVE
competition:
SEVERE
prior attitudes:
NEGATIVE & POSITIVE
signs/referents:
UNSELFISH, SHARING, GIVE
source:
UNITED FUND
encoding:
GIVE TO HELP OTHERS
transmission:
TELEVISION, DIRECT MAIL, NEWSPAPER, RADIO
FAILS TO NOTICE MESSAGE
reception:
NOTICES PLEA FOR FUNDS
DOESN'T RELATE TO MESSAGE
decoding:
RELATES PLEA TO OWN EXPERIENCE
rejection:
REJECTS NEED FOR FUNDS
acceptance:
ACCEPTS NEED FOR GIVING
MAKES NO COMMITMENT
CONTACTS GROUP AND MAKES MONETARY CONTRIBUTION

Figure 8b

MODIFIED COMMUNICATION PROCESS - OBJECTIVE: CHANGE ATTITUDE

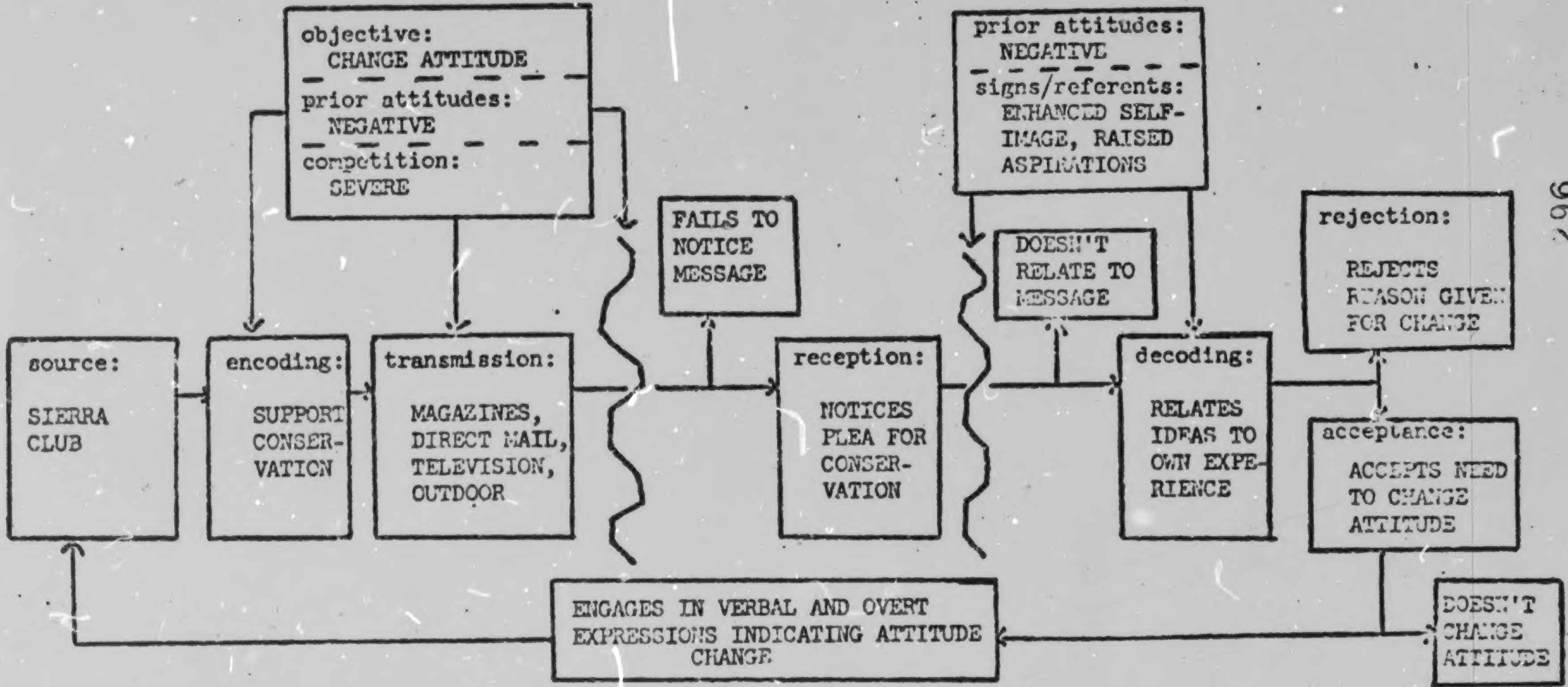
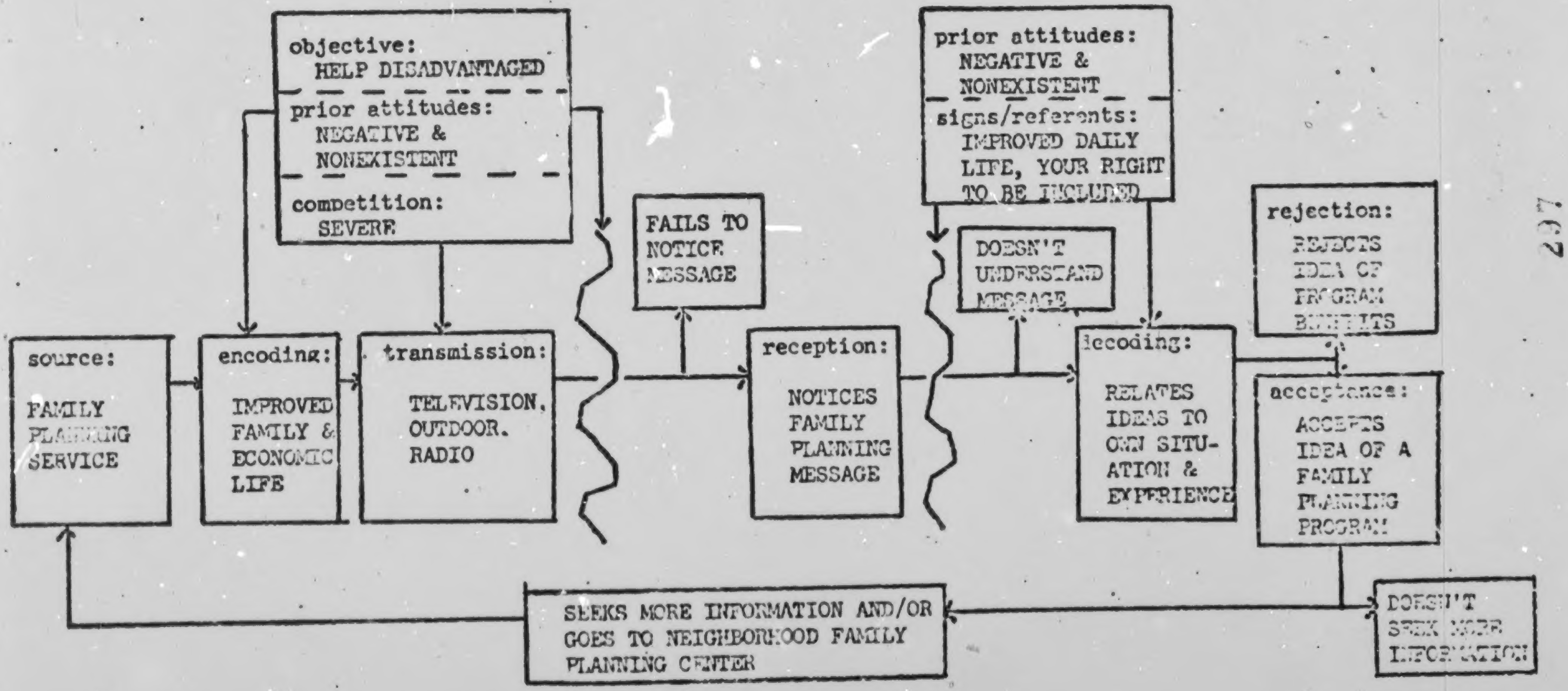

objective:
CHANGE ATTITUDE
prior attitudes:
NEGATIVE
competition:
SEVERE
prior attitudes:
NEGATIVE
signs/referents:
ENHANCED SELF-IMAGE, RAISED ASPIRATIONS
source:
SIERRA CLUB
encoding:
SUPPORT CONSERVATION
transmission:
MAGAZINES, DIRECT MAIL, TELEVISION, OUTDOOR
FAILS TO NOTICE MESSAGE
reception:
NOTICES PLEA FOR CONSERVATION
DOESN'T RELATE TO MESSAGE
decoding:
RELATES IDEAS TO OWN EXPERIENCE
rejection:
REJECTS REASON GIVEN FOR CHANGE
acceptance:
ACCEPTS NEED TO CHANGE ATTITUDE
DOESN'T CHANGE ATTITUDE
ENGAGES IN VERBAL AND OVERT EXPRESSIONS INDICATING ATTITUDE CHANGE

Figure 8c

MODIFIED COMMUNICATION PROCESS - OBJECTIVE: COMMUNICATE BENEFITS TO DISADVANTAGED


objective:
HELP DISADVANTAGED
prior attitudes:
NEGATIVE &
NONEXISTENT
competition:
SEVERE
source:
FAMILY PLANNING SERVICE
encoding:
IMPROVED FAMILY & ECONOMIC LIFE
transmission:
TELEVISION, OUTDOOR, RADIO
FAILS TO NOTICE MESSAGE
reception:
NOTICES FAMILY PLANNING MESSAGE
prior attitudes:
NEGATIVE &
NONEXISTENT
signs/referents:
IMPROVED DAILY LIFE, YOUR RIGHT TO BE INCLUDED
DOESN'T UNDERSTAND MESSAGE
decoding:
RELATES IDEAS TO OWN SITUATION & EXPERIENCE
rejection:
REJECTS IDEA OF PROGRAM BENEFITS
acceptance:
ACCEPTS IDEA OF A FAMILY PLANNING PROGRAM
SEEKS MORE INFORMATION AND/OR GOES TO NEIGHBORHOOD FAMILY PLANNING CENTER
DOESN'T SEEK MORE INFORMATION

designed to implement a solution to a social problem. Examples of possible implementations of the modified communication process given various combinations of these considerations are presented in Figures 8a, 8b, and 8c.

Special Problems in Evaluating Results

Advertising practitioners have long attempted to evaluate the results of advertising campaigns. Though absolute measures of advertising effectiveness have not been developed, relative effectiveness measures have proved beneficial.(14) The price tag for determining relative effectiveness has been high. But, users of both pre- and post-appearance testing have felt the investment necessary and worthwhile in most cases. Developers of social advertising campaigns have an especially difficult time in evaluating results. Several problems face such advertisers.

First, money is usually very tight and priorities often indicate it be spent on activities deemed more important. Activities involving the printing of brochures, the staffing of an office, a telephone staff, and other related activities tend to be ranked higher in terms of priority than evaluating the effectiveness of advertising.

Second, many individuals engaged in the development of the advertising campaign do so on a voluntary basis and their involvement often ends there. In such a case, evaluation of results may never take place.

The basis for evaluation is sometimes difficult to establish given the objective of the campaign. Some objectives lend themselves to evaluation better than others: 1) Raising money: determine the amount of contributions received; 2) Publicly commit verbal and overt expressions of support: may indicate number of respondents, 3) Change existing attitudes: requires indepth research and analysis involving a large sample of people. Even with such a research effort, actual attitude changes will not necessarily be identified; 4) Communicate information to those disadvantaged: may record the number of people who seek help. This does not indicate how many who could be helped by the program but never received the message and how many who received the message did not understand it or how they can be helped; 5) Implement change from voluntary to non-voluntary program: may record level of compliance within target group. This doesn't indicate if those not in compliance are not because they didn't understand the requirements or because they never received the information.

Overall, the lack of work in the area of evaluation of social advertising has made it difficult to assess the impact and value of these campaigns.

Improving the Effectiveness of the Application of Advertising in Social Problem Areas

The tendency to assign too great a value to the ability of advertising to help solve social problems must be overcome. Advertising cannot take the place of needed public education in many of the social problem areas. While advertising can help in the educational process, it cannot achieve the desired results alone. Education through direct personal contact and other communication vehicles must also be utilized in a total program to achieve the desired ends. Too often, the group attempting to interest others in their program for social improvement assumes that advertising can generate this interest without other aides. This is not the case. But the effectiveness of advertising in performing its role in social problem areas can be improved by careful attention to the following points:

1. More care needs to be taken in the research of the current attitudes of the target audiences as related to the social problem. Too little research is often done on who is to receive the message and how they currently feel about the social problem. The advertising can cause a defensive reaction on the part of the individual, resulting in a reinforcing of the incorrect attitude rather than a change.
2. Information presented needs to be organized to include both sides of the argument. In present efforts, the one-sided argument presentation dominates. This approach leaves the audience open to counterarguments from opponents.
3. Information presented in the advertisement needs to clearly spell out the procedure an individual may follow to become involved in the solution of the problem. Many times the advertisement is successful in generating interest, but insufficient information is presented concerning how to translate the interest into action.
4. The tone used in the advertising messages needs to be positive rather than negative. The tendency to lecture people about their shortcomings and the shortcomings of society must be tempered by a realization of people's reaction to such an approach.
5. A systematic effort to evaluate the results of the advertising campaign should be included in overall planning. The results of the evaluation should be used to determine necessary changes and identify positive aspects of the campaign effort.

These are only a few steps which, if implemented, could help improve the effectiveness of advertising in helping to solve social problems.

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A STUDY OF SEALS AND CERTIFICATIONS OF APPROVAL AND THEIR ROLE IN CONSUMER INFORMATION PROCESSING: RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC POLICY

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Consumer decision-making may be viewed as being primarily a problem solving activity involving the acquisition and processing of information from a number of available sources. According to the existing proprietary and governmental research, one important source of product-related information available to consumers is seals or certifications of approval.[1] The results of these studies generally appear to support the belief that seals and certifications of approval play a significant role in consumer decision-making.

Seals and certifications of approval are those "private aids" designed to give the buyer some dependable third-party assurance as to the quality of the products that they are buying.[2] These seals and certifications on products characterize them as "tested," "guaranteed," "certified," and/or "approved." They are promoted by the organizations awarding them as putting a quality floor under certain kinds of products and services, and are granted to manufacturers of products and services that meet the requirements of the seal-granting institutions.[3] These seals and certifications are generally granted by consumer magazines, independent testing companies, professional organizations, and governmental agencies. These agencies grant their seals and certifications to products which meet their standards, and firms in turn use these symbols in packaging and promoting merchandise at the retail level. However, not all of the seals and certifications currently appearing on products in the marketplace are issued by third-parties. A significant number of these symbols are the product of testing and/or certifying programs maintained by retailers and manufacturers who are directly involved in the production and sale of these products.

The purpose of this study was to investigate several aspects of the role played by these seals and certifications as informational sources in the consumer decision-making process. Specifically the study had the following objectives: (1) To investigate the effects of various individual-difference variables (perceived risk, self-confidence, need for certainty, and cognitive style) on the use of seals and certifications in consumer decision-making; (2) To investigate the perceived credibility (trustworthiness, expertise, and impartiality) of seals and certifications relative to other informational sources available to consumers; (3) To investigate several factors related to consumers' use and perceived meaning of certain existing seals and certifications.

Although there are a multitude of seals and certifications in the marketplace today, this study was limited to consideration of the following symbols:[4]

1. Good Housekeeping Seal
2. Parents' Magazine Seal
3. Underwriters' Laboratory Seal
4. U.S.D.A. CHOICE Stamp
5. Macy's Bureau of Standards Seal
6. Monsanto Wear-Dated Label
7. Shop-N-Bag Meat Guarantee Label
8. W. T. Grants "Laboratory Tested and Approved" Seal
9. "Seal of Approval" (fictitious symbol)

Methodology

Hypotheses were derived concerning the use and credibility of seals and certifications as informational sources based on the existing research in the areas of source credibility and consumer information handling. To test these hypotheses and to generate data for analysis concerning the use and perceived meaning of the nine existing seals and certifications, a laboratory experiment and five questionnaires were developed and administered to 198 adult female residents of Northern Delaware.

During the laboratory experiment each subject was given the task of selecting four different products from among four unknown brands. In each product category three of the alternative selections had some kind of seal or certification, while the fourth had none. The subjects were first asked to make their selections, and then to indicate the reason for their choice. Following completion of the laboratory experiment, the subjects were assembled in a classroom and asked to complete a number of questionnaires designed to measure perceived risk, several personality traits, and the perceived credibility of the major sources of shopping information available to consumers. Next, the subjects were shown slides of a number of existing seals and certifications and in response to each they were asked to indicate whether they had ever seen the symbol, what were their evaluations of products that had it, and what the seal or certification meant to them. The study concluded with a one-page questionnaire requiring each subject to characterize her personal use of seals and certifications while shopping.

Results

The findings relative to the first research objectives indicated that when making shopping decisions: (1) Subjects who perceived high risk in selecting and using particular products, chose products having seals and certifications more frequently than did those subjects perceiving low risk; (2) Subjects who indicated a low level of self-confidence in their ability to evaluate and purchase particular products, chose products having seals and certifications more frequently than did those subjects that indicated a high level of self-confidence; (3) Subjects who indicated a high level of generalized self-confidence made less use of seals and certifications than did those who indicated medium or low generalized self-confidence. However, the difference between the latter two groups was not signifcant, and the hypothesized "curvilinear" relationship was not supported; (4) Subjects who indicated a high need for cognitive clarity (certainty) made greater use of seals and certifications than did those subjects indicating low need; (5) Among subjects who indicated a high need for cognitive clarity, those whose cognitive style was that of clarifier made greater use of seals and certification than did those whose cognitive style was that of a simplifier; (6) Among subjects who indicated a low need for cognitive clarity, cognitive style had no effect on the use of seals and certifications.

The findings relative to the second research objective indicated that: (1) Independent sources were perceived as being more credible than avocate sources in all product categories; (2) Personal sources were generally perceived of as being more trustworthy and impartial than impersonal sources; (3) Impersonal sources were generally perceived of as being more expert than personal sources; (4) Seals and certifications were perceived as being significantly more credible than market-dominated sources such as advertisements and salesmen.[5]

The findings relative to the third research objective were as follows: (1) Five of the nine seals and certifications included in the study were recognized by at least 85% of the subjects; (2) The presence of these seals and certifications positively influenced the choice of behavior of the subjects; (3) Products with seals and certifications were perceived as being more desirable than the general mix of products available in the marketplace today; however, little difference in meaning was found among the various well-known symbols;[6] (4) The subjects were generally uncertain about the meaning of the various seals and certifications, and generally attributed much more to their presence than is justified by existing seal-granting programs.

Implications

The results of this study, while subject to its sampling limitations, would appear to have salient implications for consumer protection and education. It is apparent from the results of the investigation that seals and certifications significantly influence consumer choice behavior, and it is equally as apparent that consumers as a whole attribute a great deal more meaning to these symbols than is justified by the seal-granting programs of the donor organizations. Although a causal relationship was not established between these two findings by the study, it seems highly logical to assume that the high degree of influence and credibility of seals and certifications is related to some extent to this misunderstanding concerning their meaning.

In light of these findings, and the fact that the majority of the symbols considered in the study are promotional tools, it would seem appropriate for the Federal Trade Commission to take immediate action under existing legislation concerning truth in advertising to bring about an end to this public misunderstanding. Currently, information concerning the actual meaning of these symbols is available on request from the donor organizations or, in the case of the two magazine seals, is published somewhat inconspicuously in each issue. However, as the results of the study indicate, most consumers are not aware of this information, and are probably familiar only with the seals themselves which give little, if any, information.

The action of the Federal Trade Commission should take the form of requiring the seal donors to make greater public disclosure of the true meaning of these symbols in the national media. Such disclosures should include statements concerning what their symbols do and do not mean, and include all disclaimers of liability and any other restrictions on the nature and extent of the guarantee. Furthermore, since these symbols would appear to have their greatest impact at the point of sale where they appear on products; a suitable statement of meaning and disclaimer should also be displayed in conjunction with the seal or certification wherever it occurs.

However, the legislated publication of disclaimers, and increased public disclosure of the meaning of these symbols by their donors is not enough to insure adequate consumer awareness and understanding. Further efforts must be made in order to educate the public at large, and especially the new consumers entering the marketplace each year concerning the meaning of these symbols.

With respect to the public at large, this task would appear to fall on the shoulders of the numerous consumer protection organizations currently springing up in the United States, continuing education program, university extension services, and various civic and business service organizations. The objective of these educational efforts should not be to pass judgment upon the value of these symbols, however. Rather it should be to give the consumers in this country the facts concerning these programs so that they can make their own judgments concerning their use.

The important task of educating the thousands of new consumers entering the marketplace each year is the responsibility of our existing secondary school system. Consumer education should become an important part of the curriculum at this level in order to provide future consumers with some degree of competence in resolving their problems in the marketplace, and information concerning seals and certifications certainly should be included.

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4. Even thourh there are a multitude of seals and certifications appearing on products today, this study was limited to only those symbols that appear physically on products. Furthermore, since the study was

limited to housewives only seals and certifications relevant to consumer-products as that of the Power Tool Institute, Outdoor Power Equipment Institute and the like were excluded as these subjects may be assumed to be unfamiliar with products bearing them.

5. For further development of these findings see: Thomas L. Parkinson, "The Perceived Credibility of Advertisements and Other Channels of Information Among Women," presented at the 1974 Annual Conference of the American Academy of Advertising, Newport, Rhode Island, April 29, 1974.
6. Thomas L. Parkinson, "The Effect of Seals and Certifications of Approval on Consumers' Perceptions of Products," presented at the Annual Conference of the Southern Marketing Association, November 8-10, 1973, Houston, Texas.

PRIME TIME ACCESS: ECONOMICS AND ADVERTISING

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In September, 1971, the Federal Communications Commission's controversial prime-time access rule went into effect. Basically, the rule prohibited stations in the top 50 markets served by three or more television stations from carrying more than three hours of network programming between 7 and 11 p.m. During the first year of implementation the rule was modified to give both ABC and NBC an average of three hours per night instead of three hours each night. This waiver allowed ABC, in particular, to keep its highly rated Tuesday night lineup of "Mod Squad," "Movie of the Week," and "Marcus Welby," intact. During the 1972-73 television season this waiver was not granted, and, in addition, top 50 stations were not allowed to broadcast reruns of network shows. This has brought charges in some quarters that the FCC has exercised a type of prior censorship over the programming of the three networks.[1]

To the average viewer, the effects of the rule are probably negligible. At worst one may have noticed some drop in quality in the 7:30-8:00 or 10:30-11:00 p.m. periods. However, behind the scenes, the rule has upset a delicate balance between the three networks, local stations, television-production syndicators, and advertisers.

Criticism of the Federal Communications Commission's prime-time access rule has come from sources as diverse as the FCC's own chairman, Dean Burch, television stations and networks, program producers, and Congressman Barry Goldwater, R-California.[2]

At the time of initial implementation of the access rule the FCC cited program production diversity as the major reason for its passage. Production diversity carried with it the hope of diversity in programming content. In addition a hoped for secondary feature of the access rule was that it would expand local news and documentaries.

At the outset most observers agreed that those most likely to benefit from the access rule were independent program producers who could compete in a more open marketplace for time formerly controlled by the networks. It is clear that even among the ranks of independent producers there are some questions as to the value of the rule. Recently a group calling themselves the National Committee of Independent Television Producers met with members of the Commission to lobby for repeal of the access rule.[3] Only nine months before, another group, the National Association of Independent Television Producers was founded in support of the access rule.[4]

Much of the discussion of the access rule has centered around program quality and to a lesser extent the effect of the rule on independent producers. However, while these are legitimate questions they beg the longer range question of the economic effects on the television medium and consequences for existing relationships between stations, networks, advertisers and most importantly the public. The question most often asked is whether the rule can provide better and more diverse programming. Perhaps a more profitable examination would concern the economic premise on which the mass media are based and a determination of how prime-time access will affect this position.

Critics suggest that in order to be completely fair, final judgment on the access rule should be withheld until the second season (1972-73) of implementation. The effects of the access rule on program diversity during the second season were considered particularly important by writers such as Hall and Batlivala (1973). Their study and documentation of a lack of such diversity during the period concerned only the 1971-72 season.[5] However, as the present study will indicate, no significant differences were forthcoming during this second season in types of programming, program diversity, ratings or station managers' opinions of the rule.

Discussion of the prime-time rule has largely viewed the problem in a dichotomous all-or-none fashion. Favoring immediate repeal of the rule have been CBS, as well as several large producers, such as Bud Yorkin of Tandem Productions, producers of Maude, Sanford and Son, and All in the Family. Support for the rule has come from members of the National Association of Independent Producers, a major source of prime-time access programming.[6] Unfortunately, the position taken by various individuals in the debate over prime-time access has largely been a function of their personal and economic position within the industry. Consequently, the argument has been largely a matter of polarities with little middle ground. The debate has even led some (C. F. Hall and Batlivala) to suggest monopolistic control of broadcast facilities to accomplish what it is claimed the access rule cannot.

Some optimism that this "black or white" view of the rule might be changing was apparent when the FCC began its re-examination of the rule in July, 1973. (See Appendix A) Several witnesses before the Commission agreed with Mr. Donald McGannon of Group W who said that the Commission must do more than simply permit the rule to continue in effect. He said the Commission should indicate what it expects of broadcasters with respect to the access period. During the same hearing FCC Commissioner Richard Wiley summed up the positions of the authors, "Maybe we ought to keep the rule and rewrite the objectives."[7] The present article seeks to examine the benefits of the prime-time access rule developed within a system of objectives for content utilization within the access period.

If there is general agreement on any point concerning the first two years of prime-time access, it is that the access programming was not of network quality. The opponents point to the last two years as evidence for repeal. Those favoring the rule generally defend the potential of prime-time access and counter that two years is hardly a fair test.[8]

The authors believe there is little reason to expect dramatic improvement in quality or diversity of access programming under the present rule. It is, however, important to study the types and trends in access programming as a basis upon which to make recommendations for change in the rule.

Method

In order to examine the first two years of access time programming, a questionnaire was sent to 490 station managers of network affiliates. Other than a few questions dealing directly with advertising revenues, the managers were asked to indicate which programs they were utilizing in the access period for each of the seven days in 1971 and 1972. They were also asked to rate on a five-point scale the quality of non-network shows carried in 1972 with the network presentations during the present access time periods two years ago. They also (on the same scale) gave their opinions on audience ratings, audience complaints about programming, and ratings for first prime-time network shows in their markets by comparing the 1971 season with the 1970 season and the 1972 season with the 1971 season. Finally, an open-ended question was posed regarding their opinions of the prime-time access rule. The measuring instrument was two pages in length.

One hundred eighty-seven stations in the south, 66 in the northeast, 151 in the midwest, and 86 in the west were included in the sample. There were 53 returns from the south (38% of all returns), 27 from the northeast (19%), 37 from the midwest (26%), and 23 from the west (17%). With respect to market size, 107 stations in the top 50 markets and 383 in the bottom 50 were sampled. There were 33 returns from the top 50 markets (17% of the returns), and 107 (83%) from the less than top markets. Data were collected during November, 1972 to December, 1972.

Results and Implications

Programming:

The survey of station managers indicated little diversity of programming among stations and few departures in program content comparing the first and second years of programming after the access rule. The present section of the study details the type of programming scheduled during the access period as well as the implications of this programming.

The authors believe the major failing of the access rule is that the FCC was unrealistic in requiring stations to obtain three and one-half hours per week of programming from non-network sources. The type of program categories and examples of each which were scheduled in this time period are shown in Table I. The major difference in programming between the 1971-72 season and the 1972-73 season resulted from the additional requirement which excluded network reruns during the second season in the top 50 markets. Reruns had been allowed in all markets during the initial season of the prime-time access period. It is clear from Table I that network reruns continue to fill a major amount of access time (22%) in the smaller television markets. The top 50 markets, denied these program sources, turned to the game show for their single largest category of prime-time programming (40%). Table I confirms critics' (such as Hall and Batlivala) predictions that meaningful program diversity would not be enhanced during the second season of the access rule.[9]

In addition to the problem of a lack of program diversity is the practice

Table I

Prime-time Access Programming:
A Two Year Summary
By Market Size

Type Programming	All Stations			Top 50 Stations			Less than Top 50 Stations		
	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station
Game Shows[a]									
1972	241 (24%)	83 (59%)	2.9	93 (40%)	26 (79%)	3.6	148 (19%)	57 (53%)	2.6
1971	108 (11%)	47 (33%)	2.3	41 (18%)	17 (51%)	2.4	67 (9%)	30 (28%)	2.2
Ad/Mystery[b]									
1972	115 (11%)	71 (51%)	1.6	44 (19%)	22 (67%)	2.0	71 (9%)	49 (45%)	1.4
1971	42 (4%)	34 (24%)	1.2	18 (7%)	12 (67%)	1.5	24 (3%)	22 (20%)	1.1
Children[c]									
1972	107 (10%)	72 (51%)	1.5	29 (12%)	18 (54%)	1.6	78 (10%)	54 (50%)	1.4
1971	88 (9%)	65 (46%)	1.4	20 (8%)	14 (42%)	1.4	68 (9%)	51 (47%)	1.3
Variety[d]									
1972	114 (11%)	82 (59%)	1.4	18 (7%)	17 (51%)	1.1	96 (12%)	65 (60%)	1.5
1971	122 (13%)	78 (55%)	1.6	21 (9%)	15 (45%)	1.4	101 (13%)	63 (59%)	1.6
Sports/misc.[e]									
1972	26 (2%)	21 (15%)	1.2	11 (4%)	5 (15%)	2.2	15 (2%)	15 (14%)	1.0
1971	29 (3%)	26 (18%)	1.1	8 (3%)	7 (21%)	1.1	21 (2%)	19 (17%)	1.1
Off-Network[f] Reruns									
1972	163 (16%)	51 (36%)	3.2	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0	163 (21%)	51 (47%)	3.2
1971	249 (26%)	72 (51%)	3.5	59 (26%)	15 (45%)	3.9	190 (25%)	57 (53%)	3.3

Table I (Cont'd)

Type Programming	All Stations			Top 50 Stations			Less than Top 50 Stations		
	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station
Local News and Documentaries									
1972	61 (6%)	32 (22%)	1.9	20 (8%)	10 (33%)	2.0	41 (6%)	22 (20%)	1.9
1971	60 (6%)	31 (22%)	1.9	23 (10%)	10 (30%)	2.3	37 (5%)	21 (20%)	1.8
Local Programming Non-News									
1972	54 (5%)	36 (25%)	1.5	16 (6%)	9 (27%)	1.8	38 (5%)	27 (25%)	1.4
1971	74 (7%)	46 (32%)	1.6	24 (10%)	10 (30%)	2.4	50 (6%)	36 (33%)	1.4
Network Preemptions									
1972	97 (10%)	39 (27%)	2.6	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0	99 (13%)	39 (36%)	2.5
1971	159 (17%)	56 (40%)	2.8	13 (5%)	6	2.1	146 (19%)	50 (46%)	2.9
TOTAL									
1972	980	140		231	33		749	107	
1971	931	140		227	33		704	107	

Examples:

[a] I've Got a Secret, Beat the Clock, What's My Line

[b] The Protectors, Police Surgeon

[c] Wild Kingdom, The Mouse Factory

[d] Hee Haw, Lawrence Welk, Bobby Goldsboro

[e] NFC Films; Sports Challenge

[f] Wild, Wild West, Petticoat Junction

of stripping five shows a week into a period formerly presenting five different network programs. Of the stations responding, 26 per cent indicated they were presently using strip programming which are most frequently game shows or reruns. It is obvious that although the FCC has accomplished its goal of diversifying program production, this diversity of source often results in a reduction of program diversity.

It is obvious from Table I that the three and one-half hours to be filled by local network affiliates is a burden they are unable or unwilling to fulfill in the sense of using diverse program materials. Any intention on the part of the FCC to encourage local programming, particularly those dealing with community service, has certainly remained largely an unreached objective. In the present study local programming was divided into two areas: Documentary or public service; and entertainment (i.e., children's, local sports or local movies). Of the nine program categories, local programming, news and non-news ranked seventh and eighth respectively, rating higher than only nationally distributed sports shows.

The general lack of local news programming during the access time period is even more apparent if the midwest is excluded (See Table II). Because of the time difference, the prime-time access period falls into periods typically devoted to news programming. In the south and northeast, the two regions in the Eastern Time Zone, news programming is scheduled less than the national average.

It is clear from the questionnaire that station managers, regardless of region of country or market size, were overwhelmingly negative toward the access rule. There was some variance from region to region in degree of unfavorableness to the access rule by station managers but not to be a significant extent. However, statistics do not tell the entire story of station managers' negativism toward the rule.

The range of criticism went from regarding the rule as "another nuisance concocted by the FCC" to the view that "it is a serious attempt to control broadcasting through governmental edict." However, most station managers who expressed an opinion felt that the rule was a minor problem with which to contend rather than the start of some protracted attempt at governmental interference with broadcasting. It is clear, however, that station managers felt that the rule is unnecessary since local affiliates, in their opinion, were already providing outstanding public service. Those managers who expressed general favor with the rule saw more advantage in its future potential than in its present implementation.

Barter Programs

Prior to the access rule the concept of bartering programs was a most unusual practice and generally confined to low-budget shows with limited distribution. By the fall of 1972, attitudes toward barter by stations and advertisers had changed dramatically. Fifteen major shows were offered on a barter basis including such popular programs as "Hee Haw," "The Lawrence Welk Show," and "Wild Kingdom."[10] Table III shows the extent of barter during the 1972-73 season.

Table II

Prime-time Access Programming:
A Two Year Summary
By Region

Type Programming	South			Northeast			Midwest			West		
	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station
Game Shows[a]												
1972	102 (27%)	32 (60%)	3.2	59 (31%)	19 (70%)	3.1	49 (18%)	23 (62%)	2.1	30 (18%)	9 (39%)	3.3
1971	41 (11%)	19 (35%)	2.1	24 (13%)	7 (25%)	3.4	27 (10%)	13 (35%)	2.0	18 (10%)	8 (34%)	2.4
Ad/Mystery[b]												
1972	47 (12%)	29 (54%)	1.6	20 (10%)	11 (40%)	1.8	30 (11%)	19 (51%)	1.6	18 (11%)	12 (52%)	1.5
1971	13 (3%)	11 (20%)	1.1	12 (6%)	8 (29%)	1.5	10 (4%)	8 (21%)	1.2	7 (4%)	7 (30%)	1.0
Children[c]												
1972	26 (7%)	18 (33%)	1.4	25 (13%)	19 (70%)	1.3	36 (13%)	21 (56%)	1.7	20 (12%)	14 (60%)	1.4
1971	38 (10%)	25 (47%)	1.5	15 (8%)	12 (44%)	1.2	22 (9%)	17 (45%)	1.3	13 (8%)	11 (47%)	1.1
Variety[d]												
1972	44 (11%)	29 (54%)	1.5	20 (10%)	17 (62%)	1.2	33 (12%)	24 (64%)	1.3	19 (1[illegible]%)	12 (52%)	1.6
1971	52 (14%)	33 (62%)	1.6	23 (12%)	14 (51%)	1.6	29 (12%)	21 (56%)	1.4	8 (5%)	8 (34%)	1.0
Sports/misc.[e]												
1972	18 (4%)	14 (26%)	1.3	4 (2%)	3 (11%)	1.3	4 (1%)	4 (10%)	1.0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0
1971	11 (3%)	9 (16%)	1.2	7 (3%)	6 (22%)	1.1	8 (3%)	8 (21%)	1.0	3 (1%)	3 (13%)	1.0
Off-Network[f] Reruns												
1972	59 (15%)	19 (35%)	3.1	32 (16%)	12 (44%)	2.6	40 (15%)	15 (40%)	2.7	33 (20%)	5 (21%)	6.5
1971	92 (26%)	27 (51%)	3.4	50 (27%)	13 (48%)	4.5	65 (26%)	21 (56%)	2.9	45 (27%)	11 (47%)	4.0

Table II (Cont'd)

Type Programming	South			Northeast			Midwest			West		
	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station	Total Shows	Total Stations	Shows per Station
Local News and Documentaries												
1972	17 (4%)	12 (22%)	1.4	3 (1%)	3 (11%)	1.0	28 (10%)	13 (35%)	2.1	13 (8%)	4 (17%)	3.2
1971	14 (4%)	10 (18%)	1.4	6 (3%)	6 (22%)	1.0	31 (12%)	11 (29%)	2.4	9 (5%)	4 (17%)	2.2
Local Programming Non-News												
1972	24 (6%)	14 (26%)	1.7	11 (5%)	6 (22%)	1.8	10 (3%)	9 (24%)	1.1	9 (5%)	7 (30%)	1.3
1971	34 (9%)	21 (39%)	1.6	21 (11%)	11 (40%)	1.9	8 (3%)	7 (18%)	1.1	11 (6%)	7 (30%)	1.6
Network Preemptions												
1972	34 (9%)	11 (20%)	3.0	15 (7%)	6 (22%)	2.5	28 (10%)	14 (37%)	2.0	20 (12%)	8 (34%)	2.5
1971	57 (16%)	18 (33%)	3.1	24 (13%)	7 (25%)	3.4	48 (19%)	19 (51%)	2.5	33 (20%)	12 (52%)	2.6
TOTAL												
1972	371	53		189	27		259	37		161	23	
1971	352	53		182	27		246	37		161	23	

Examples:

[a] I've Got a Secret, Beat the Clock, What's My Line

[b] The Protectors, Police Surgeon

[c] Wild Kingdom, The Mouse Factory

[d] Hee Haw, Lawrence Welk, Bobby Goldsboro

[e] NFC Films; Sports Challenge

[f] Wild, Wild West, Petticoat Junction

TABLE III

Percentage of Stations Programming at Least One Bartered Show During Access Time

	South	Northeast	Midwest	West	Top 50	Less Than Top 50
Per Cent of Barter	66.0	68.2	75.0	61.9	60.6	71.3

It is clear that barter has become a major technique for programming the access period by local stations. There are no significant differences among the various regions, but small stations are somewhat more likely to use barter than stations in the top 50. Prior to the implementation of the access rule, and again after the 1971-72 season, observers predicted small stations would generally engage in more bartered shows as compared to larger stations to conserve limited financial resources.[11] However, an analysis of those stations using barter indicates less differences in market size and the use of barter than had been originally predicted. Of the 20 top 50 stations which bartered at least one show five (25%) carried only one such show while 15 (75%) carried two or more. Similarily, of the 72 less than top 50 stations carrying at least one bartered program, 50 (69.5%) carried two or more. It is obvious that the prime-time access rule has brought a dramatic change in the use of barter and in the quality of both programs and advertisers who are engaging in the practice.

Public Service Announcements During the Access Period

A major difference in advertising between the access period and the same time period during network programming prior to 1971 was the amount of public service advertising used. When the 7:30-8:00 p.m. period represented initial network prime-time programming, PSA's were a negligible part of the commercial time on both the networks and the local affiliates.

With the advent of the access rule there was a marked increase in the number of PSA's. Table IV shows the percentage of PSA's run during the access period in the first two seasons under the rule.

TABLE IV

PSA's as Percentage of Total Commercial Time During First Two Seasons of Access Rule

	South	Northeast	Midwest	West	Top 50	Less than top 50
% of time devoted to PSA's, 1972	11.1	10.7	11.9	11.3	9.1	12.0
% of time devoted to PSA's, 1971	10.1	13.2	11.9	11.1	8.4	12.4

It is clear that for all stations and in every region of the country the percentage of PSA's during both years remained very consistent. PSA's maintained a level somewhat over 10 per cent of all commercial time run during the access period. The major increase in PSA's can be traced to two major factors, both of which were predicted by advertisers and could have been anticipated by the FCC when developing the rule. First, access time is not considered prime-time by stations or advertisers. Consequently, the time is fertile territory for PSA's similar to other fringe periods. In addition, some stations have difficulty in selling all the available spots (up to 42 a week on some stations) and have filled in with PSA's.

The number of PSA's does not, of course, indicate a loss of revenue for stations even if all spots are not sold. Local stations are receiving a much higher commercial rate for locally sold time compared to earlier network compensation. Overall, 14.2 per cent of station managers expressed general satisfaction with the rule and virtually all cited higher gross revenue as the major advantage of the rule.

Percentage of Access Time Purchased by National Advertisers

Attempting to anticipate the effects of the prime-time access rule prior to the 1971 season, various suggestions were made about advertising's role. Among the potential positive features of the rule was the fact that local and regional advertisers would have a chance to buy time during the access period. Some advertisers felt that this would amount to prime-time spot buys. Table V indicates the breakdown between national and local advertisers during the access period.

TABLE V

Percentage of Access Time Purchased by National Advertisers

	South	Northeast	Midwest	West	Top 50	Less than top 50
% of time bought by national advertisers	49.1	48.9	48.7	47.5	58.5	45.2

It is clear that local and regional advertisers were able to obtain access to commercial buys during periods formerly dominated by national network advertisers. Initially, it would seem that diversity has been achieved by the FCC on two counts. First, networks have less control over production and programs; this was given as the major reasons for inactment of the rule. Secondly, the statistics clearly indicate that a diversity of advertisers has also been achieved. Even in the top 50 markets, which one would logically expect to be dominated by national advertisers, over 40 per cent of the time was purchased by non-national advertisers.

However, a closer analysis of the situation indicates that the accessibility to prime-time advertising by these local companies must be examined in light of changes since implementation of the rule. During the last season prior to the access rule four minutes per half hour was the maximum commercial time run by local stations. During the current television season the average is about six minutes per half hour with a few stations running as high as six and one-half minutes.

It is clear that local advertisers are simply buying minutes (actually 30's) which have been added during the transition from network programming to local and syndicated programming. The consequences of the FCC's rule have been to relegate what were formerly prime-time program periods to fringe time and compound the problem with over-commercialization. Taking the long view there is little reason to believe that national or local advertisers are being better served through commercials running during the access period.

Single Sponsorship of Access Programs

As indicated in Table V the expected domination of prime-time access period by national advertisers did not occur. Likewise there was no trend toward domination of access period programming by single sponsors. Basically commercial buys followed network formulas of spot purchases. Even bartered shows invariably left the local station an option to sell time to other non-competing advertisers. Table VI shows the relative scarcity of solely sponsored programs.

TABLE VI

Percentage of Stations With at Least One Solely Sponsored Show

	South	Northeast	Midwest	West	Top 50	Less than top 50
% of stations with at least one solely sponsored show	15.1	3.8	8.3	4.5	9.1	9.7

It is clear that few programs were sold to a single sponsor. With the exception of the south, where possibly lower rates may have made sole sponsorship more attractive, advertisers shunned the sole sponsoring of programs. A reluctance to engage in sole sponsorship should not be surprising to anyone familiar with the evolution of network advertising over the last ten years. This movement to spot buys at the network level coupled with the significant expansion of available spots during most access periods accounts for the scarcity of sole sponsors.

Recommendations:

The premise of the present study is that the problems of the prime-time access rule center around the perhaps contradictory notion that the rule has simultaneously gone too far and not far enough. The authors make the recommendation that the access rule be significantly modified as follows:

1) The FCC should reduce the prime-time access period from one-half hour per night to one hour per week in the top 50 markets and one-half hour per week in the less than top 50 markets.

2) With the exception in (1) above, the access rule should be applied uniformly to all network affiliates regardless of market size.

3) Stations should be required to schedule locally produced programming during the prime-time access period. No syndicated new or off-network reruns would be allowed to count toward stations' access time programming. Obviously, networks will not program exclusively to stations in the less than top 50 markets. Therefore, affiliates in smaller markets could schedule syndicated programming (including reruns) one-half hour per week. (Due to the distinction in point one above).

Modification in the time devoted to the access period is mandatory if the rule is to have any chance of achieving the goals which the FCC set out for it. Instead of requiring one-half hour per night the rule should be changed so that only one hour per week be excluded from network programming in the top 50 markets and one-half hour per week in markets below the top 50. The two nights would be determined by the networks since they would ultimately decide which days they would not provide programming to their affiliates. The affiliates would still have the same control presently exercised under the present access rule to choose the programming they feel would be most appropriate for their market, but it would be locally produced.

In making recommendations two and three the authors contend that the access rule did not go far enough to assure diversity of content and localization of programming. First, the application of the rule should never have been determined by the size of the market. If it is necessary and desirable that viewers in metropolitan areas receive new (or at least newly produced) programs, why is it any less important for viewers in smaller markets to have access to the same type of programming? The fact that such a small versus large market distinction was made by the FCC in the original rule indicates some doubt by the Commission as to the ability of stations to conform to the spirit, if not the letter of the regulation.

Finally, if the rule is to provide a meaningful opportunity for minority or community service programming the additional restriction of mandatory local production must be made a part of the regulation. The station manager overwhelmed at the prospects of filling three and one-half hours of time formerly programmed by the networks would perhaps regard one hour or one-half hour per week of local programming (depending on market size) as an opportunity. This final modification in the rule (point #3) would be likely to create the most difficulty since it borders on government intervention in programming content. Since this portion of the modification would be critical to the success of the rule, some discussion of this point is warranted.

For some forty-six years now the FCC has sought to influence the broadcast industry's structure and behavior for the pruposes of promoting signal clarity and maximum program choice. The formal goal has been to promote higher signal standards and more program options in more communities and areas than would presumably result otherwise. The FCC's structural standards assume that "there is a greater likelihood of diverse programming, geared to a wide range of tastes and interests, (1) the more competing signals there are in any market; (2) the greater is the number of independent network and non-network program suppliers competing for program clearances on separately owned stations; (3) the more complete and accurate is each station owner's knowledge of consumer program preferences and of available program-talent inputs; (4) the greater is each licensee's discretion in determining program content, format, and scheduling."[12] The TV Network inquiry and the current access rule indicate what can be done under assumptions (3) and (2), respectively. The present paper suggests examination of assumption (4). It is recognized that action relating to assumption (1) is another option in the quest for diversity. In order to provide the rationale for working with assumption (4), it is appropriate to consider assumption (1) at the onset.

Authors Hall and Batlivala suggest dealing with this first assumption directly in order to achieve the objective. That is, the industry structure must be modified (presumably by government) economically with respect to competitive forces if diversity is to be realized. Since they believe any one area cannot economically support the great number of stations which would lead to diversity (since only after all stations have split up the majority audience with respect to program preference will other stations go to other programming formats), the answer lies in the development of monopolistic station holdings in a given market area. They believe the monopolist will exploit all programming types since he need not compete; that is, "because his channels are not competing with each other, he would have an incentive to maximize the total number of viewers in an entire area rather than the audience of an individual station."[13] However, if one is to consider the economic structure of the industry it is necessary that the base of economic support should also be examined, that is, advertising revenues. Certainly, the source of revenue is central to the economic discussion of the broadcasting problem. As Coase indicates, "With commercial broadcasting, the person who pays for the broadcast of a program is the advertiser. It follows that the programs broadcast are those which maximize the profits to be derived from advertising. The market for broadcast programs is one from which the consumer is barred: What he would pay plays no part in the determination of programs."[14] Is it clear, then, that the monopolistic would, of his own accord, provide programming to minority tastes? It must be assumed that the monopolistic (no less than the present oligopolistic) will not wish to operate even one station which caters to minority tastes if this station does not show a profit. It is not difficult to envision a station of this kind whose minority audience simply does not meet the economic and target profiles of the advertisers most willing and able to conduct television advertising. As Elwert has previously indicated, in order for an advertiser to be attracted to minority program fare, three factors must be met: "First, the advertiser must offer a product that is consumed by a clearly defined market segment--as opposed to the mass market--and he must be able to identify the variables by which this segment is delineated. Second, there must be a reasonably good basis for estimating that a specific programme attracts an audience whose characteristics conform to those of the market segment. Third, the advertiser should be able to obtain a cost advantage by using a combination of programme and broadcast time that appeals to an audience smaller than would be gained by aiming at the largest possible audience."[15] If these conditions are not clearly met, it is probable the monopolist will not operate a station solely for minority fare. Of course, this may be resolved by governmental edict through the granting of monopolies only to those willing to subsidize a loosing operation, but this is highly unlikely in our present economic setup.

An examination of assumption (4) may provide a more desirable alternative. As of this writing, certainly (and as usual in the broadcasting case) academic discussion of this becomes a moot point since the FCC has very recently considered indicating to stations precisely what percentage of total fare must fall into local programming (10-15%), news for network affiliates (8-10%), and public affairs (3-5%).[16] However, the basic question still remains, that is, does the FCC have the right or is it even desirable that indications of a general nature such as suggested in the access rule modification here with respect to program content types be made by such a governmental body?

Any examination of this question must go back to a study of the powers Congress intended to give the commission and the relation of these to the first amendment as it may or may not apply to broadcasters. The Communications Act of 1934 specifically forbids censorship on the part of the FCC. On the other hand, it also specifically directs the FCC to regulate the industry according to the standard of "the public interest, convenience, and necessity." As Kalven has indicated, the result is a hybrid form--there is neither government ownership or private ownership--primarily because of the licensing function. The licensing function, in turn, obscures the meaning of the first amendment applied to broadcasters. Kalven makes the case for direct application of the amendment to broadcasters.[17] However, court decisions do not indicate this view of the situation. For example, in 1969 Justice Byron White handed down his landmark decision which declared that, "it's the right of the viewers and listeners, not the right of the broadcasters, which is paramount."[18] This is born out in the intent of the FCC to set up percentage requirements for program types. The Congress appears willing to go along with this proposed ruling and the broadcasters themselves appear ready to agree to a set of negotiated percentages. It would, therefore, appear that the FCC is able to implement the proposed modification of the access rule suggested here with little difficulty. It it is assumed the FCC has the authority to promote diversity with respect to its responsibility to regulate in "the public interest, convenience, and necessity," then the most direct method of dealing with this objective is via assumption (4) and general program content. The difficulty arising from this proposal in contrast to the proposal of monopolistic control would seem to be minimal.

Summary

The major criticism surrounding the prime-time rule invariably compares the access period with normal network operations as to quality of programming, the ability of access programming to maintain audience levels, and the relative financial standing of various elements of the television industry as a result of the rule.

As indicated earlier, station managers generally regard prime-time access programming as inferior to network programs. In addition industry reports indicate that less money per program is being spent for access time shows than for network programming.[19]

Station managers surveyed in the present study also agreed that ratings for the 7:30-8:00 p.m. period were lower than the access period as compared to the 1970-71 season when network shows were running in the period. The loss of audience during the access period has been confirmed by at least one other study.[20] It is important to note that while some viewers were not tuning in to network affiliates during the access period, homes using television figures remained constant, indicating more viewers were watching independent station or perhaps non-commercial television.

The most argued point of the access time debate concerns the financial loss or gain to different segments of the industry. During the summer of 1972 ABC reportedly lost some $1.1 million on the Olympics as a result of not being able to broadcast during the access period.[21] Meanwhile FCC Commissioner Dean Burch has charged that the access rule will cost independent producers $50 million annually in lost network programming.[22]

It seems that the public's rights to the access period are lost in internal debate within the television industry over the rule. Ten years ago Professor Gary Steiner discussed the problem of the public use of television and the difficulty of achieving balance among all the diverse publics of the medium. While acknowledging the preplexity of defining balance, Steiner maintained that "...the public interest is made up of many interests. There are many people...and you must serve all of them."[23]

The authors view the access rule as one method of providing the type of diverse public service programming Steiner had in mind. Rather than using the criteria which are applied to the majority of television programming, i.e., ratings and revenue, the access period should be judged in terms of the unique potential it provides for diversified programming. A modified access rule such as the one presented here can, and should, serve as a useful tool for the television medium to serve local community interests ignored by standard network programming.

Appendix A

In December, 1973 the FCC announced a further modification of prime-time access. The commission reduced the access period to one-half hour (7:30-8:00 p.m.) and eliminated it completely on Sunday. In addition network programming can be used in one additional half-hour period if it is of a children's, documentary, or public affairs nature.

The FCC has now moved further into the area of programming, an area specifically excluded to it, while it still has not addressed itself to the problem of local production. Commissioner Hooks has pushed for the additional requirement that access period programming conform to information gathered in the ascertainment process. However, he does not specifically mention local programming.

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APPLICATIONS OF BELIEF MEASURES TO SPECIFIC AND OVERALL ADVERTISING CLAIMS: A PROGRAM FOR RESEARCH

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Introduction

One of the greatest challenges facing marketing and advertising professionals in the next few years will be the development of linkages between behavioral data and public policy decisions. The need to know more about the potential impact of public policy decisions on consumers is now pervasively argued in the literature.[1] Regulatory agencies, governmental bodies, and social organizations are also clamoring for more behavioral evidence to incorporate into their decision-making processes.[2] Nowhere is this new awareness more evident than in the regulation of advertising in the mass media, particularly in the areas of deception and puffery.

Believability As a Construct

Before effective research can be conducted in the area of deception or believability in advertising, it is necessary to determine what constitutes believability in advertising. Before suggestions and guidelines can be offere on how believability can be "defined" and measured, two important assumptions must be made:

1) Any type of persuasive communication has as one of its goals some type of behavioral change. While it is true that a particular advertisement may not be expected to produce direct and immediate behavioral results, it is assumed that some behavioral change will ultimately result.

2) A communication message is primarily made up of a set of belief statements, and therefore, the major strategy involved in the construction and delivery of any persuasive message is to enhance the acceptance of the beliefs in the message.

Involved in the effectiveness of the message, then, is the question of whether or not the beliefs are accepted, and whether that acceptance implies a change in belief[3] or behavior. Since the construct of belief is of central importance to the discussion of advertising deception, it is necessary to examine just what is meant by the term belief and what the usage of the term implies.

For many years the construct belief was included with opinions or evaluation under the more generic designation of attitudes, (e.g., the classificatio of attitude as composed of three parts, the affective, conative, and cognitive components).[4] More recently, consideration of inconsistencies in empirical results has led to the suggestion that distinctions be drawn between these constructs and their interrelationships; among others, Sheth and Fishbein[5] have taken this approach. The manner in which the construct of belief is defined is somewhat dependent upon the measurement technique utilized and the manner of its inclusion into a specific theoretical model. Generally, however, it may be offered that a belief is a subjective judgment of the probability that a given relation exists between two objects:

How likely is it that "a is b?"

"a" "b"
A ball is round.

"a" "b"
Jackson will be President.

There is essentially a subject-predicate relationship. It is possible to assign a probability to each of the above statements, that is a probability that each of these relationships exist. These probability judgments are subjective in that they will vary across individuals in accordance with experience, other existing beliefs, etc.

It may be useful to differentiate between two rather broad classes of beliefs, descriptive and inferential. A descriptive belief is formed on the basis of direct observation. For example, seeing a mother slap her child, an individual could assign a 1.0 probability to the statement, "The mother hit the child."[6] On the other hand, seeing the mother hit the child, and inferring from this that the mother is angry with the child, one could assign a probability anywhere from 0 to 1.0 to the belief, "The mother is angry with the child." This range in probabilistic assignment is because the inferences that could be made are dependent upon past experience with mothers hitting their children. The point is that, in the first case, the descriptive belief that is formed is based on observable external evidence and thus is veridical for the individual. Whereas in the case of "the mother is angry," "anger" is a cognitive construct that cannot be directly observed. The individual may observe characteristics he associates with anger, a particular tone of voice, flushed face, frowning; but "anger" itself is something he infers.

There is a third kind of belief that is most important for this discussion; it may be called an informational belief. This is a belief based on information given about some relationship "a is b" by some source "s." It becomes very important to distinguish between the belief that "a is b" and the belief that "s said 'a is b'." If one is measuring the latter, what one obtains is actually a measure of message recall.

Beliefs, Behavioral Intentions, and Actual Behavior

Thus far three important ideas have been discussed: 1) that advertisements are essentially a series of belief statements; 2) that advertisers attempt to change consumers' existing belief networks through advertisements; and 3) that the construct of belief can be divided into three components, descriptive, inferential, and informational. One last important idea that must be discussed is how beliefs, in any form, are related to actual behavior.

Given that the individual does have some choice about whether or not he will engage in a certain behavior or perform a certain act, it can be said that whether or not he performs the behavior is approximately equivalent to his intention to perform that behavior. If it is important to discover whether a consumer is going to purchase an XYZ tire, it is possible to determine this by simply asking him whether or not he intends to buy it.

A rather strong relationship exists between intention to perform a given behavior and actual performance of that behavior given that unanticipated or unexpected events[7] that could affect the behavioral intention do not occur.

What is important is that a shift has taken place from a behavioral event to a cognitive construct, behavioral intention. One of the major components of behavioral intention, however, is beliefs.

Of the several models relating behavioral intentions, beliefs, and actual behavior, Fishbein's[8] adaptation of Dulany's[9] theory of propositional control appears to have the greatest intuitive appeal and theoretical elegance, and furthermore has received considerable empirical support.[10] Briefly, Fishbein's model states that

$$OB \sim BI = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[b_i e_i \right] w_1 + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left[NB_j (MC)_j \right] w_2$$

where OB = Overt Behavior
BI = Behavioral Intention
$B_i a_i$ = The sum of n salient beliefs about the consequences of engaging in OB, weighed by the evaluation of those beliefs
$(NB_j)MC_j$ = The sum of normative beliefs or m significant others, weighed by the motivation to comply with those others.

w_1, w_2 = empirically derived weights in the regression equation.

(For full discussion of this model, see several articles by Fishbein.)[11]

There are several important points to be made: 1) For BI, beliefs about the behavior and not the beliefs about some related object must be obtained; the one set of beliefs may or may not bear much relation to the other; 2) Each belief that is obtained must also be evaluated (e_i). A person may believe that XYZ tires are radial tires, but when asked to evaluate XYZ radial tires, he or she may indicate that the tires are not good ones. If a negative evaluation of a belief occurs, that belief is one which will act in a negative manner towards any positive action concerning the object; 3) If the component of this model, $B_i a_i$ (which is approximately equivalent to the attitude toward the behavior),[12] is the sum of n salient beliefs and their subsequent evaluations about the behavior, how is it possible to know what beliefs should be measured?

It has been suggested that the beliefs a person holds about a given "object" (here we will expand the use of the term to include persons, behaviors, etc.) represent a hierarchical structure, with those beliefs higher in the hierarchy more likely to be determinants of attitude. These beliefs, which are more strongly associated with the attitude object by habit are more likely to be elicited responses when the attitude object becomes a stimulus, and are referred to as the salient beliefs. In addition, beliefs not in the salient range of the hierarchy (usually encompassing six-eleven beliefs) may also ser as indicants of attitude, and furthermore may affect salient beliefs in strength or position.

For any given behavior, then, the best predictions of attitude $\sum_{L=1}^{M} B_i a_i$ are made from measures of salient beliefs.[13] To find out what these salient beliefs are for a given population, the usual procedure is to take a sample and go through an elicitation process; the most frequently occurring responses are most likely to represent the salient beliefs for the population.

Implications in Public Policy on Advertising Practices

As a form of persuasive communication, advertisements may influence consumers by (1) attempting to change existing beliefs about a product or service; (2) attempting to introduce new beliefs about a product or service; (3) attemp ing to reinforce or strengthen an existing belief that is salient or to move it into the salient grouping; or (4) attempting to increase the positive evaluation of a belief about a product or service. Any given message may have as its goal (or effect) one or a combination of the above results.

When the FTC or FDA determine that an advertisement is "deceptive" or "misleading," they usually mean by such designation that some belief statement or evaluative component of a belief statement is communicated in a way that subsequently leads to the formation of false and misleading beliefs about a product or service for consumers. The question then arises as to what specifi kind of belief is considered to be deceptive.

For example, a consumer exposed to a persuasive communication may develo descriptive, informational, and inferential beliefs. You will recall that "descriptive belief" was defined as being based on direct observation that an object "a" has some attribute "b." In the case of an advertisement, a consum may form the descriptive belief (i.e., assign a high probability) that "the ad (s) said product 'a' has attribute 'b'." For example, consider an exposure to a tire ad, which results in the formation of a descriptive belief, "the ad said that XYZ tires last 40,000 miles." The consumer could have also accepted the message and have formed the informational belief that "XYZ tires will last 40,000 miles." Again, the distinction between recalling and accepting the message should be clear.

In the first instance (descriptive belief), a source, "s," made the assertation that "a is b"; the a-b link itself was established by "s." In the second instance, (informational belief), belief formation involved the establishment of a direct link between "a" and "b." In some instances, formation of the descriptive belief "s" said "a is b" may lead to the informational belief "a is b" while in others it may not; in some cases formation of the descriptive belief may be irrelevant to formation of the informational belief.[14]

Clearly, then, evidence that a consumer believes that a given source posited a relation between "a and b" should not be taken as evidence that the consumer accepts the assertion itself.

Thus, it is necessary to determine not what consumers believe about the message but what they believe about the product or service being advertised. Acceptance of the message (informational beliefs) and not message recall (descriptive beliefs) should be what concerns the FTC or FDA (or anyone else interested in advertising effectiveness).

Informational beliefs are, however, only one type of belief that must be examined to determine the deceptiveness of an advertisement. Inferential belief formation also must be considered. For example, if a detergent imparted the informational belief that "ABC detergent has blue and green crystals in it," viewers of that commercial could develop inferential beliefs that, because ABC detergent has crystals in it, it has increased cleaning power. The informational belief, "ABC detergent has blue and green crystals," could interact with a generic product belief, "crystals in detergents lead to increased cleaning power," to produce the new inferential belief that "ABC has increased cleaning power."

It would, therefore seem necessary that, when regulatory agencies or firms are reviewing ads to determine whether they are misleading or deceptive, both descriptive and inferential beliefs should be reviewed. One possible procedure for conducting such a review follows the arguments that have been presented in this paper.

The first step in such a procedure for determining potential deceptiveness would involve obtaining a random sample of the target consumer population and eliciting from them current beliefs about (1) the specific product or service and (2) the generic group of products or services. The main purpose in collecting data on these beliefs is to provide a data base for evaluating the possibility that belief statements (assertions) in the ad under review are interacting with any product-specific or generic product beliefs to form new inferential beliefs.

These statements would then comprise the major part of an instrument that would be administered to a second independent sample of target consumers. In addition to the elicited salient beliefs, the potentially deceptive assertions in the ad under review could be incorporated in the questionnaire as belief statements. A third independent sample of target consumers would be exposed to the advertisement(s) under review and then be administered the belief questionnaire. Each respondent would be asked to indicate relative acceptance of each belief (i.e., the "strength" with which the belief is held) and to evaluate the belief (irrespective of "belief strength").

An ad would then be considered deceptive if the beliefs drawn from the ad (informational) were accepted and positively evaluated when objective evidence[15] indicated that they should not have been. An ad could also be considered deceptive if any inferential beliefs were formed by target consumers that objective evidence would not tend to support.

A major question that remains is how the researcher should determine what inferential beliefs were formed by the consumer (if any). One technique would be correlation of ad-specific beliefs with product and generic-product beliefs. High positive correlations would indicate possible inference-making.

Other alternatives for explaining inferential belief development would be to utilize some existing probabilistic information processing model. (Detailed exploration of this possibility is beyond the scope of this paper.)

In summary, it is suggested that an agency interested in the operational definition and measurement of deception in advertising consider both informational and inferential beliefs. Those beliefs which are accepted or formed and positively evaluated by consumers but which are contrary to objective evidence about the true nature of the product should be considered to arise from misleading and deceptive assertions.

While the theoretical notions underlying this discussion are gaining increasing acceptance, there are still some points of dissension in the operationalization of these procedures. Hopefully work currently being conducted by these researchers will contribute to a resolution of some of the methodological issues and hopefully provide new insights into the investigation of deception in advertising.

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14. Formation is being used here rather loosely to include change in an already existing belief. While it can be argued that formation of an informational belief that may be prerequisite to formation if an informational belief, it is also highly possible that the source may be forgotten without much effect on the informational belief.
15. Objective evidence about the attributes of a product or service may be obtained from: 1) independent laboratory tests, 2) the ad substantiation program of the FTC, or 3) the expertise of the staffs of the FTC or FDA.

THE WONDER BREAD CASE AND IMPLIED UNIQUENESS CLAIMS

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The Wonder Bread case (ITT Continental Baking Co., Inc.) was thought by some to be a landmark case proposing novel and unique legal theory regarding implied uniqueness as a form of deceptive advertising. There were actually three separate products involved in the case. Profile Bread was charged with being falsely advertised as a dietary product and agreed to a consent decree including corrective advertising. The charges of false nutrition claims against Hostess snack foods were dismissed for lack of support. The Wonder Bread charges were complex. The Administrative Law Judge (ALJ) and the Commissioners sitting in appeal, disagreed on several points of fact. This paper summarizes the findings of the Wonder Bread part of the case and presents the underlying logic for declaring implied uniqueness to be deceptive.

The specific charges against Wonder Bread advertising are listed below. They are identified by the paragraph location in the formal FTC complaint. All material in quotation marks, unless otherwise noted, is from the FTC document including the formal complaint, the initial decision and the findings of fact (ALJ), and the final order and findings of fact (Commissioners' decision on appeal). The document is available from the FTC (Docket No. 8860).

Specific Charges Against Wonder Bread

8a. Wonder Bread is an outstanding source of nutrients, distinct from other enriched breads.

8b. Consuming Wonder Bread in the customary manner that bread is used in the diet will provide a child, age one to 12, with all the nutrients, in recommended quantities, that are essential to healthy growth and development.

8c. Parents can rely on Wonder Bread to provide their children with all nutrients that are essential to healthy growth and development.

8d. The optimum contribution a parent can make to his child's nutrition during the formative years of growth is to assure that the child consumes Wonder Bread regularly.

8e. The protein supplied by Wonder Bread is complete protein of high nutritional quality necessary to assure maximum growth and development.

10. These advertisements tend to exploit the aspirations of children for rapid and healthy growth and development by falsely portraying, directly

and by implication, Wonder Bread as an extraordinary food for producing dramatic growth in children.

11. These advertisements tend to exploit the emotional concern of parents for the healthy physical and mental growth and development of their children by falsely portraying, directly and by implication, Wonder Bread as a necessary food for their children to grow and develop to the fullest extent during the preadolescent years.

Findings of Fact and Decisions

Administrative Law Judge Decision

1. There is no proof that the ad claims are false, misleading, or deceptive.
2. The surveys don't "...provide sufficient insight into how the advertisements were in fact perceived by the consuming public."
3. One can't base a case on opinion witnesses. "...(A) case of this kind cannot be successfully sustained by following opinion upon opinion upon opinion. Opinion based upon opinion is like stepping on the spring-board of imagination and springing into the realm of conjecture."
4. The complaint is dismissed.

Opinion of Commissioners on Appeal

FTC staff attorneys appealed the case to the Commissioners. After a thorough review of the record, the Commissioners issued their decision which is summarized below.

Findings

1. "Wonder Bread is a standardized, enriched white bread...and is not an outstanding source of nutrients as distinct from other enriched white breads."
2. Of 709 respondents in a copy test, almost all mentioned growth, and 50 (about 7%) specifically mentioned that Wonder Bread induces remarkable growth.
3. Another study shows that 7% say Wonder Bread stands out in helping children grow, an additional 3% believe Wonder Bread is "one among several brands that are better than others in helping children grow." 4.5% believe that Wonder Bread was the one bread that stood out in nutrition.
4. Another study showed 17% feel that Wonder Bread was superior in nutritional value to "other brands."
5. These results do not relate specifically to the ads in question.
6. Children from one to 12 perceive ads (including Captain Kangaroo and Bozo Circus ads) as promising special growth capacity not available without eating Wonder Bread.
7. "The challenged Wonder Bread television advertising represents to viewers that Wonder Bread is an extraordinary food for producing dramatic growth in children."

Decision

8a. (1) The complaint is taken literally--"distinct from other brands" means superior to all other brands.
(2) Surveys show some consumers rate Wonder Bread high on nutritional value and some also regard it as nutritionally superior. However, there is no direct link between these attitudes and the advertisements, so this complaint is dismissed.

8b.-

8e. The Commission concurs with Administrative Law Judge--charges dismissed.

10. "Although this representation was not expressly made by the advertisements in the precise language of the complaint, we believe that these representations are the clear and necessary message of respondents' advertisements when viewed in their entirety."

"The constant stress on children's growth years, the use of such words as 'vital element,' 'the formative years' when children attain 90% of their growth, the dramatic visual depiction of virtually instantaneous growth, the appeal to parents to help the child grow bigger and stronger, that children will never 'need' Wonder Bread more than right now, certainly all convey a message of extraordinary value."

11. The Commission concurs with Administrative Law Judge--this charge is dismissed.

Dissenting Comments

There were two dissenting comments. Commissioner Engman felt that the ads were unfair to children. He said, "In these circumstances, I am persuaded that the challenged advertisements, in addition to being deceptive, also constitute unfair practices...because they capitalize on children's anxiety about growth and exploit their difficulty or inability to differentiate between reality and fantasy."

Commissioner Jones dissented, advocating a corrective advertising remedy. She felt that if an ad represents a brand to be extraordinary, it also leads consumers to view it as a necessary and essential product.

She also felt that corrective advertising is necessary, "...not just to erase consumer recollections of these particular advertising messages but to ensure that these deceptions will not be communicated to consumers in the future advertising of respondents." "As such an integral part of their message, the reiteration of the Wonder Bread name is likely to constantly evoke the other aspects of the advertised message which have been found to be false."

Implied Uniqueness as a Unique Selling Proposition

The Commissioners did not find that Wonder Bread ads stated explicitly that the product was an "outstanding source of nutrients, distinct from (all) other enriched breads. (8a)" Staff attorneys argued that the ads imply the uniqueness claim, even though no explicit uniqueness claim is made. While the issue of implied uniqueness was not clearly stated in this case, it may become a central issue in future deceptive advertising cases. A discussion of implied uniqueness as a deceptive practice is, therefore, warranted.

Unique Selling Proposition

Unique selling proposition, popularized by Rosser Reeves in his book Reality in Advertising (Knopf, 1961) was defined as follows:

> "1. Each advertisement must make a proposition to the consumer, not just words, not just product puffery, not just show-window advertising. Each advertisement must say to each reader: 'Buy this product, and you will get this specific benefit.'
>
> "2. The proposition must be one that the competition either cannot, or does not, offer. It must be unique--either a uniqueness of the brand or a claim not otherwise made in that particular field of advertising.
>
> "3. The proposition must be so strong that it can move the mass millions, i.e., pull over new customers to your product."

Keep in mind that second point--a proposition that the competition either cannot or does not offer. It says there are two kinds of uniqueness: (1) a uniqueness based on unique product attributes, and (2) a uniqueness based on advertising claims only, not on actual uniqueness in the product.

A campaign based on a unique selling proposition will usually be more successful than a campaign with no USP. To the extent that the unique selling proposition is based on unique product attributes, we have effective, socially acceptable advertising. But what about the campaign based on a unique selling proposition which is not unique to the product--a USP which competitors could also use--based not in uniqueness of product, but rather in the advertiser being the first to appropriate that claim to his own use?

Product Differentiation

Let's leave uniqueness for a minute to discuss the related marketing concept of product differentiation. Product differentiation is the developing of perceived differences between competing products in the mind of the consumer. Product differentiation doesn't require real differences--only perceived differences in the consumer's mind. This concept is of interest only when there are but small differences between competing products. It's not too stimulating to mediate on consumers' perceptions of product differences between automobiles and Life Savers. The products are obviously very different and would be classed in the same category only in the most general of product classifications. The concept does have value where distinguishing differences are small or nonexistent and where the products compete as total substitutes for each other--that is, where, except for the most miniscule of differences, the competing products provide the same consumer satisfaction value. It is in this case that implied uniqueness becomes important.

While product differentiation often arises from actual product differences, it is possible, through effective advertising communication, to bring consumers to perceive products as different which in fact are not different.

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Implied Product Uniqueness

Implying that a physically undifferentiated product is different from competing products brings us back to Reeves' second requirement of a unique selling proposition--the proposition must be one that competitors do not offer. Implied product uniqueness is the implication that the advertised brand or product has a benefit which competing brands don't have. The implication comes not by directly stating that the difference exists, but by saying the advertised brand has it, and not saying anything about whether other products have it. If the implication is successful, then the advertised brand is perceived as superior and the implied uniqueness leads to sales.

Implied Uniqueness as Deceptive Advertising

We propose that implied uniqueness can be a deceptive and unfair marketing practice and as such violates the FTC Act.

The real test of advertising deceptiveness and unfairness should be in the advertisement's effects on consumers and on competition. The test of deception should be a measure of consumer perception after exposure to the ad. If consumer perception differs from the true state of nature in a way at all attributable to the ad, that ad is by definition deceptive and is a violation of the law. Therefore, if an ad campaign results in consumers perceiving that the advertised brand is uniquely superior in an attribute for which, in fact, some competing brands are equally as good, that ad is deceptive and violates the law. Thus, implied but untrue uniqueness claims, *if effective*, are deceptive and are law violations.

Now, in terms of the present case, Wonder Bread was definitely stating that it helps build strong bodies 12 ways. The claim is literally true. *But*, this claim could be made for any bread made from enriched flour. So Wonder Bread is implying a uniqueness which in fact it does not have. Parties to the case introduced evidence which showed that some consumers imputed higher nutritional quality to Wonder Bread based on this ad campaign than to other equally nutritious breads.

If it is true that consumers misperceive the nutritional quality of Wonder Bread, and *if* that misperception can be partially traced to the advertising message implying uniqueness, *then* the advertising is deceptive. It seems only a matter of time until a case comes along which first will show consumer misperception of product attributes, and second will show that the misperception is due, at least in part, to the ads. When this occurs, the Commission will be hard pressed to decide the ad is not deceptive. With that precedent it will be only a matter of time until implied but untrue uniqueness claims become law violations, *per se*.

A TWO-NATION COMPARISON OF ADVERTISING LAW AND REGULATION: NORWAY AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

by
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Introduction

This paper is a report on the results of exploratory research to outline the nature of Advertising Regulation in Norway and the United States. The purpose is to make some initial comparisons and to suggest hypotheses that will explain the observable similarities and differences. Since the research was exploratory in nature, only a few knowledgeable resource persons in business and government in Norway were interviewed. Additional information from published sources was gathered on regulation in Norway and in the United States.

The subject is indeed so vast in scope that the treatment in this paper necessarily must be quite broad. Additional research must be done to explore narrow topic areas in more depth. A major purpose of this paper is to identify the topics that seem to be most important for future research.

Consumerism

Discussion of advertising regulation should be preceded by brief mention of Consumerism. In recent years, in both the U.S. and Norway, vast changes have occurred in the nature of society and in the lives of citizens in society. Higher levels of education, increased income, reduced work week, more leisure time, interest in the quality of life, ecology, and many other changes have occurred. Consumerism seems to be a phenomenon that has been most noticeable in the relatively wealthy countries of the world, where the above-mentioned changes have been relatively greater. It should also be kept in mind that Consumerism in Norway and the U.S. is part of an international pattern of Consumerism. Hence, study of these two countries may provide useful insights to understand better the total situation.

One of the most noticeable characteristics of consumerism is that consumers are more critical. People who know more, who have the time to contemplate the quality of their life, who have the economic resources to satisfy their needs and wants, and who are concerned about the environment in which they live, have learned how to be more articulate in expressing their desires for change in the system.

At the same time pressures have arisen from other changes in our societies--in Norway and in the United States--such as inflation, unbalanced distribution of income and wealth, war, racial strife, and ecological problems. Misleading advertising, or perhaps only advertising that seems in poor taste to the recipient, are irritating and add to consumer apprehension.

And, out of these circumstances numerous consumer advocates have arisen. A kind of mobilization has occurred in both Norway and in the United States, to deal with perceived needs for change. And, of course, the mass media have played an important role in selecting and portraying news, which in turn reinforces some of the more fundamental forces in society.

The goals of organized consumerism include increased consumer information, better consumer protection, and greater consumer influence. As a result, new legislation has been proposed and new laws have been enacted. And, regulatory agencies have expanded the scope of their activities.

Businessmen reacted with proposals for self-regulation, the results of which are not yet entirely clear. Logically one might expect that self-regulation should be assessed carefully before assessing new legislation and new or expanded activities of regulatory agencies. However, that is a topic that must be covered in a separate paper.

The Nature of Law

At this point it would be well to mention several generalizations about the nature of the law. The general purpose of law is to provide rules and regulations for people and organizations to follow, which are in the best interests of people in society--individually and collectively. Laws should reflect the needs of society. In order to promote the best interests of society, laws sometimes must protect men and organizations from each other. It is important to protect the rights of individuals and at the same time to try to maximize the common welfare. Laws are the servants of individual men and of society as a whole.

Before laws can be written to serve men and society, lawmakers must understand the nature and needs of men and society. In the United States there is a long history of stressing the unique worth of the individual. The society encourages self-expression, achievement through hard work, thrift and accumulation of wealth. This kind of society requires laws to protect against fraud and deception, and this need for protection is the basis of much U.S. legislation which affects marketing. Yet this same stress on the freedom of the individual has meant that U.S. laws provide a great deal of latitude for "stretching" the truth.

In Norway, there is a long history of some of the same factors mentioned above, but with somewhat different emphasis. Among the population there is widespread agreement that the economic system should reward all members of the population as equally as possible. And there is the strong belief that the government can and should watch out for the interests of consumers. As a consequence consumers seem to be more dependent on government to make sure that business does not engage in false or misleading advertising. And, quite importantly, businessmen seem to accept this role of government as a natural factor in their environment.

There is also a strong feeling among the populace of Norway that cooperation has many virtures, perhaps stemming from the long history of harsh climate and limited resources, requiring neighbors to help each other during periods of adversity. It should be noted, however, that Norwegian farmers traditionally have built their homes on their farms, and have been fiercely independent, strong and hard-working. They have not banded together in villages in the same way that farmers in many countries live, i.e., it has not been their custom to live in villages and travel to their fields to work during the daytime.

Many other characteristics of society could be mentioned, but perhaps one more will suffice for this paper. Norwegians seem to be oriented strongly toward the needs of employees; jobs often are viewed as having the purpose of fulfilling employee goals--to earn a living, to do dignified, satisfying, challenging, useful work. Thus, there is a tendency to think of job enrichment, and of methods of making work oriented to and for the employee, rather than for the purpose of meeting the profit objectives of the employer or the service requirements of consumers. In contrast, in the U.S., it is probably fair to say that there is greater emphasis on getting employees to function in a way which will accomplish employer goals; in the case of an enlightened employer, the employee is expected to function in a way which will accomplish consumer goals, since good customer service often is the difference between success and failure for the employer. This history in the U.S. has led to the organization of human and financial resources to meet the needs of consumers, that is, the so-called marketing concept, or customer orientation. The enlightened employer utilizes human resources to meet the needs of consumers, thereby accomplishing his own goals of profitability, growth, or survival in the competitive marketplace.

Common Law and Code Law

At this point it is also appropriate to note that the U.S. tradition has followed the English Common Law System, while the Norwegian tradition has been the Code Law System. While this topic is too complex to discuss adequately here, it is important to note:

1. U.S. laws are written briefly and in general terms, allowing for subsequent interpretation by the courts, in a series of decisions which are in harmony with society as it evolves and changes.
2. Norwegian laws are written with considerable detail and with specific provisions, leading the courts to apply the law as it is written rather than forcing them to develop "new law" with each decision. This is not to say that courts do not have flexibility in interpreting Norwegian laws; the point is simply that Norwegian laws tend to be much more specific than U.S. laws.

U.S. Advertising Laws and Regulation

The U.S. laws which are fundamental to advertising regulation are:

1. Section 5 of the Clayton Act of 1914, as amended in 1938: "Unfair Methods of Competition in Commerce, and unfair or deceptive acts or practices in commerce, are hereby declared unlawful."
2. Sections 12 and 15 of the same act, commonly known as the Wheeler-Lea Act, which make it unlawful to disseminate any false advertisement for food, drugs, devices or cosmetics, and in addition defines in some detail the meaning of "false advertisement."

In the United States the Federal Trade Commission has had great latitude to define its mission in enforcing the law, with considerable variation in that mission from time to time as society's needs seem to change, and as the composition of the members of the commission changed.

In the United States relatively new laws include:

1. Fair Packaging and Labeling Act (1966).
2. Cigarette Labeling Act (1966).
3. Truth in Lending Act (1968).
4. Public Health Smoking Act (1970).

In addition a "Truth in Advertising Act" has been proposed for several years, and apparently is still under consideration by the U.S. Congress.

And, in the United States, relatively new activities of the FTC include:

1. The Advertising Substantiation Program, and
2. Corrective Advertising.

Norwegian Advertising Law and Regulation

In Norway an entirely new basic law regarding advertising regulation has been enacted recently: The Marketing Control Act of 1972. Incidentally, the Norwegian word that corresponds to "marketing" is used in a somewhat more restricted sense than it is in the United States, usually meaning marketing communication, especially personal selling, advertising and sales promotional activities.

In Norway, it was felt necessary to enact a detailed piece of legislation to define practices considered unacceptable, and to provide a consumer ombudsman and other organizational structure to enforce the law.

The Marketing Control Act of 1972 which went into effect in January, 1973 is too complex to describe completely here, but it is possible to mention the main features of the law.

Paragraph one, the general provision, expresses the general intent of the act:

§1. General provision.

> It is prohibited in business operations to perform any act which is contrary to sound business practice as between business enterprises or is unreasonable in regard to consumers.

The criterion "sound business practice" was retained in this new act, as it had been in previous legislation, because this term has a strict and well understood meaning to businessmen and the courts. The word "consumer" was not in previous legislation, and was added to express the intent that consumer consideration should be kept firmly in mind when enforcing this act.

Paragraph two deals with misleading business methods, and in essence requires truth in advertising and in competitive methods:

§2. Misleading business methods.

It is prohibited in business operations to utilize any incorrect or otherwise misleading representation which may tend to influence the demand for or offer of goods, services or other performances.

The prohibition applied also to any other procedure which may have such influence on the demand or offer, if on account of the manner in which it is conducted or as a result of other circumstances it may tend to mislead consumers.

The word guarantee or a similar term used in connection with the sale of goods and services is regarded as misleading if it either fails to give the recipient any rights in addition to, or restricts, the rights he would have had without the guarantee or the like.

Any publication or other announcement of bargain sale, realisation sale or other kind of retail sale at reduced prices may only be made when the prices of the offered goods have actually been reduced.

While truth is not defined explicitly, this paragraph has examples of two practices which are prohibited, which illustrate a rather literal interpretation of "truth." The examples show how limits will be drawn under this new act. The word guarantee, for instance, cannot be used unless it contains a promise of an additional consumer benefit, above that available without the formal guarantee. The law is likely to reduce the freedom of advertisers to use the word guarantee.

An interesting feature of this paragraph is that the advertiser bears the responsibility for showing that his claim is correct. If a consumer complains to the Consumer Ombudsman, the advertiser has the responsibility of demonstrating that his claim is true.

Paragraph three deals with insufficient information:

§3. Insufficient information etc.

It is prohibited in business operations to utilize any representation which may tend to influence the demand for or offer of goods, services or other performances, and which fails to provide adequate or sufficient information or includes irrelevancies and is therefore unreasonable.

The prohibition applies also to any other procedure which may have such influence on the demand or offer, if it exploits the consumer's lack of experience or knowledge and is therefore unreasonable.

This paragraph prohibits an advertiser from misleading a consumer by not providing sufficient information. This is a highly controversial section of the law because of the lack of clarity with regard to what is meant by sufficient information.

An early example of the application of this section had to do with chewing gum. An advertising film showed several people practicing karate. Suddenly they stop, and one of them says the equivalent of: "Take it easy, let's take a break and chew a stick of gum." This film was accused of providing insufficient information. In the decision, the Consumer Ombudsman said that while the information might be irrelevant, it was not unreasonable. More decisions must be made before it will be clear as to how this provision will affect advertisers.

Paragraph 4 prohibits the use of premiums. It is interesting to note that the Norwegian word for premium is also the same word used for "payoff," which suggests a somewhat different connotation than the English word "premium." Paragraph 5, which prohibits lotteries, is closely related to Paragraph 4. The two sections are:

> §4. Premiums.
>
> It is prohibited in business operations to seek to promote the sale of one or more goods, services or other performances (the main performance) by offering or participating in an offer of premiums to consumers.
>
> A premium is any additional performance (article of merchandise, service, etc.) which is attached to the sale of the main performance, when no normal connection exists between the performances. Payment of money is however regarded as a premium only when it does not have a normal connection with the payment for the main performance, or when stamps, coupons or similar documents are used for the main purpose of serving as evidence of a right to the money payment. The charging of an especially low price for the additional performance also constitutes a premium.
>
> The provisions of §5 last paragraph will similarly apply.
>
> §5. Lotteries.
>
> It is prohibited in business operations to seek to promote the sale or purchase of one or more goods, services or other performances by arranging any lottery or other scheme under which the winner of a benefit (prize, award, etc.) is selected wholly or partly by chance.
>
> These provisions do not apply to offers of awards or prizes made in periodical publications by the publishers thereof for solutions to puzzles, participation in competitions or similar performances by the readers. The value of the prizes or the amount of the award must not exceed the figures which are stipulated by the Ministry.

These two paragraphs have to do with specific activities. These two prohibitions were in earlier legislation, but were not as strict. From the standpoint of businessmen these two paragraphs are difficult to interpret and quite controversial, and it seems quite likely that a number of court battles will have to be settled before the interpretation of these paragraphs will be clear. The paragraphs seem to prohibit the practices without qualification, making it impossible to appeal to consumer desires to get something free. It is argued that the desire to win, or to get something free, is a strong motivating force for consumers, and therefore offers many opportunities for abuse. Business, on the other hand, may not feel it should be limited by this kind of restriction.

The second part of the Act makes provision for the establishment of a Market Council and a Consumer Ombudsman for the purpose of enforcing the provisions of the Act.

The market council consists of nine members, who have the power to prohibit any act which it considers contrary to the law, "when it finds that the interests of consumers call for such prohibition." The last part of this sentence indicates clearly that the competence of the Market Council is limited to problems which are of clear concern to consumers.

The Consumer Ombudsman has the responsibility at his own initiative or at the request of others to urge all business enterprises to conduct their operations in compliance with the provisions of the act. If voluntary compliance is not obtained, the Consumer Ombudsman may bring the matter before the Market Council for decision. If the Consumer Ombudsman decides not to bring a matter before the Market Council, it may be brought there by

> ...any business enterprise or consumer who is affected by the matter or by an association of businessmen, consumers or wage-earners.
>
> If the Consumer Ombudsman fails to obtain voluntary compliance and he considers that it would entail inconvenience or harm to wait for the Market Council's decision, the Consumer Ombudsman may decide to impose a prohibition.
>
> When the Consumer Ombudsman makes the decision, he shall state the reasons therefor. He shall notify the Market Council of his decision.
>
> The decision may be appealed to the Market Council.
>
> The Market Council may require the Consumer Ombudsman to bring certain specified matters before the Market Council.

Relationships between Government and Business

At this point a few words about the relations between Norwegian business and government seem to be in order. In general, there seem to be fairly good relations. Businessmen tend to feel that government has a tendency to be too idealistic and sometimes unrealistic, perhaps because government officials don't know business conditions well enough. Undoubtedly many U.S. businessmen feel the same way about U.S. government officials.

But in Norway there seems to be a somewhat closer spirit of cooperation. The organizations within Norwegian industry and trade are cooperating with each other and with the Consumer Ombudsman, and are actively engaged in furthering discussions and keeping open the communication between them. Business has the desire to cooperate, to provide its experience, and to bring about realistic interpretation and enforcement of the act.

Early Experience in Enforcement of the Norwegian Marketing Control Act

During the first year of operation, from January through December, 1973, 1191 cases were brought before the Consumer Ombudsman. Of these cases, approximately one-fourth were dismissed without action or referred to other bodies. In 41% of the cases the Consumer Ombudsman took a position on the legality of the activity in question. 35% of the cases were still pending at the end of 1973.

The cases arose from the following sources:

From	Percentage
Private persons	31%
Businessmen	20
Citizens' Action for True Advertising	9
The Consumer Council	6
Consumer Ombudsman, own initiative	25
Other government authorities	9
TOTAL	100% N=1191

Those cases arising from the business community fell mainly into two categories, from competitors and from those seeking advisory opinions. With regard to the latter point, the law does not provide for the Office of the Consumer Ombudsman to give advisory opinions.

The most frequent cases arose from the food business (16.5%), followed by health care products, cosmetics and toiletries (12.5%), and clothing and textiles (9.5%).

The most frequent number of alleged abuses fell under section 2 of the act which prohibits false or misleading advertising (65% of the cases). The rules against premiums and lotteries (sections 4 and 5) accounted for about 25% of the cases.

In the cases that have been decided on their merits (41% of the total cases) the results were as follows:

	Percentage of Cases
1. The Marketing practice was stopped or changed after the Consumer Ombudsman found the practice to be a violation of the Act.	32%
2. The practice was voluntarily stopped or changed by the marketer without any express position from the Consumer Ombudsman on the legality of the practice.	51%
3. The Consumer Ombudsman did not regard the practice as a violation of the Act.	17%
TOTAL	100% N=494

It should be noted also that the Consumer Ombudsman seldom makes formal decisions. The normal procedure is to seek voluntary compliance when the Consumer Ombudsman feels there has been a violation of the Act. In only five instances has there been any consideration of outright prohibition of a practice.

The Market Council has handled only three cases (of the above-mentioned five cases in which prohibition of practices was considered). The Market Council decided on prohibitions of practices in two of these cases, and expressed important principles of interpretation in the third case. The

Consumer Ombudsman decided to prohibit abuses found in the other two cases.

One of the two cases involved a company, Holiday Magic, which was enjoined from further development of its pyramid system, but not from further retailing through its already established "peddlers."

The Office of the Consumer Ombudsman also prohibited franchising where the general public was invited to invest 6000 N.Kr. as an advance and guaranteed amount for the purchase of items for resale, with high profits promised by the franchisor. The contract was written in such a way that the money was forfeited by the investors if they did not meet sales volumes which were impossibly high. This decision was based on Section 1 of the Act.

Interestingly, although the Holiday Magic decision is being appealed to the Market Council, the Consumer Ombudsman refused to suspend the verdict until the Market Council passed on the case.

Sections 4 and 5 are also providing some difficult decisions, since the scope of the language seems to prohibit all premiums. However, in one instance a carpet retailer offered 10 N.Kr. (a little less than $2.00 U.S.) to the first 500 people to visit his shop. The Consumer Ombudsman took the view that this inducement had no real effect on the demand for carpets, that since it was so small an amount it did not cause any psychological pressure. This position was taken with considerable doubt and with serious reservations, a spokesman said, and it might be changed later.

Regarding consumer protection, a spokesman for the Office of the Consumer Ombudsman has indicated that the 65% of the caseload concerning false or misleading advertising has resulted in significant changes. It is felt that they have removed from the presentations of products and services a number of exaggerations and untrue statements. For instance the Office of the Consumer Ombudsman has made a large-scale cleanup of mail-order offers. Another important field has been incorrect statements of price advantages, discounts or special offers.

In addition to decisions on specific cases, public knowledge of the Act and its enforcement seem to be having a broad impact on advertising and sales promotion practices in Norway.

Conclusions

Major differences in the nature of legislation and regulatory agency activities affecting advertising are due to differences in the cultural, economic, legal, political and social environment, past and present.

In some ways control over advertising seems stricter in Norway than in the United States, especially with regard to standards of "truth" and "insufficiency of information." And, Norwegians specifically prohibit certain practices which are not prohibited in the United States, for example the use of premiums and lotteries.

On the other hand, the U.S. FTC has a regular program to require substantiation of claims, and sometimes has required corrective advertising; such requirements have not been used in Norway.

In both countries, the publicity surrounding enforcement and the potential for businessmen to be charged with abuses, seem to be having a substantial, albeit difficult-to-measure, effect on current advertising practices.

Although direct comparisons between laws and regulatory activities are interesting, it also seems desirable to suggest a few possible reasons for the differences we find. When seeking reasons for differences it is necessary to keep in mind that laws are enacted and regulatory activities are established as a result of numerous and complex societal forces. Thus, attempts in this paper to explain the origins and causes of laws and regulatory activities must be viewed as tentative. Much additional knowledge is needed to formulate hypotheses, and research is needed to test such hypotheses before accepting or rejecting them. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to propose three broad characteristics of society that seem to have the promise of leading to hypotheses that can explain or predict some of the differences between Norwegian and U.S. advertising laws and regulatory activities:

1. Consumerism has evolved at a somewhat different rate and in different ways in the two countries, and therefore pressures for changes in advertising regulation have been different in the two countries. As a result the respective governmental reactions have led to different laws and regulatory activity affecting advertising. Detailed formulation of hypotheses would require specification of the differences in consumerism between Norway and the U.S.A. and how these differences led to different advertising laws and regulation.

2. The social philosophy of the people of a nation affects what the people expect from their government. The degree of individualsim, or the degree to which citizens normally depend upon their government to protect them from adversity, are important determinants of public policy in a democracy. If elected officials perceive the desires of their constituents accurately, such officials sometimes will act to meet such constituent desires. Detailed formulation of hypotheses would require examination of how advertising law and regulation are affected by certain characteristics of society such as:

(a) the prevalence of persons who are highly individualistic and dependent on themselves to evaluate advertising and protect themselves from unscrupulous advertisers, or
(b) the prevalence of citizens who prefer to depend on government to evaluate advertising and protect them from unscrupulous advertisers.
Two societies with different mixes of the above-mentioned types of persons are likely to have different advertising laws and regulatory activities.

3. The role of jobs in the life styles of citizens affects how citizens perform their jobs. It might be argued that if jobs are viewed primarily as a means of assisting a business organization to be successful by meeting the needs of consumers individually and collectively (consumer orientation/the marketing concept), then employees are likely to prepare advertising which will assist in meeting consumer needs. It is in the best interests of employees to do so, since such actions determine the prosperity of the business, and indirectly employee salaries and benefits. And, such advertising, since it is oriented to meet consumer needs, is not very likely to lead to consumer criticism and thereby to laws or regulatory activities to control advertising.

On the other hand, if employees look at jobs primarily as a means to fulfill employee goals, e.g., to earn a living, or to do dignified, satisfying, or challenging work, one might argue that advertising done by such employees is not very likely to be oriented toward meeting the needs of consumers. And, if the advertising does not meet consumer needs very well, it is therefore likely to come under criticism and lead to laws or regulatory activities to control such advertising. Detailed formulation of hypotheses along these lines would require specification of the relationships between employee attitudes toward jobs and employee performance as it relates to meeting consumer needs via advertising.

STANDARDIZATION...LOCALIZATION: A PROPOSED ALTERNATIVE METHODOLOGY FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF MULTINATIONAL PROMOTIONAL CAMPAIGNS

by
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The development of efficient as well as effective multinational promotional strategies has become increasingly difficult due to environmental factors beyond the control of marketers, including: 1) increased competition from United States' based multinations, host country producers and third country marketers; 2) increased government intervention and enforcement of regulations related to media and appeals; 3) increased bilateral trade agreements between members of multinational market groups, and 4) increased heterogeneity in the state and the rate of development of foreign economies. The complexity of constructing promotional strategies that transcend cultural, political, economic and technological barrier necessitate a flexible methodology. Therefore, the degree of heterophily present in the multinational communication process becomes an essential element in the diffusion of information in a foreign environment.[13]

This paper describes a three-stage approach to determine the degree of transferability or the degree of universality of promotional strategies. The stages present in the construction of this methodology are: 1) development of a comparative frame of reference based on economic indicators; 2) the use of "progressive" cross cultural analysis to determine environmental and cultural variables that influence promotional strategies, and 3) determination of the degree of universality of products for foreign markets, i.e., transferability of the product or the intangible concept of the product to foreign cultures.

Standardization Vs. Localization

Multinational marketers have fallen victim to the myth of the dichotomy of standardized (universal) appeal or localized (contextual) appeal used in their promotional campaigns. These generalized approaches are based on divergent philosophies of mass communication. The primary difference centers on the perceived effect cultural dissimilarities have on the diffusion of information in a culture. Both are described to identify the strengths and weaknesses of each philosophy.

Standardization of Communication

The standardized promotional campaign has gained acceptance by many large United States multinational organizations. Goodyear Rubber Company, Procter and Gamble, Singer, Coca-Cola and Kodak are examples of multinational organizations whose standardized campaigns promote a product of universal appeal.[9] Proponents of this growing school of thought contend that cultures throughout the world are basically the same and that cultural universals exist that may be used in the development of promotional strategies. This philosophy of international communication has at its conceptual base Maslow's five levels of needs.[16] Once the need level is determined and the universality of the need is ascertained in a given culture, a standardized promotional package can be developed for all cultures. The promotional strategy may then be introduced to a foreign environment with only minor adjustment made to appeal and technique for various major environmental dissimilarities (e.g., language, media, trademarks). The mass communicator must study only the wants, needs and ability to buy in each country and apply this knowledge to American advertising principles and strategies to stimulate mass consumption in foreign markets.[15]

The trend toward standardized promotion campaigns has several logical reasons for being implemented by multinational marketers:

1) The increased physical mobility of world consumers is reducing the isolationism of consumers. As consumers travel from country to country, universally-known brands, trademarks or promotional appeals help to reduce ambiguity and confusion in the consumer decision making process.
2) The advent of global television, radio and in some instances newspapers are giving tremendous impetus to standardized advertising appeals.
3) Costs can be minimized by employing standardized formats and promotional campaigns for all cultures.
4) Successful promotional ideas are difficult to develop and modification of an idea because the product is sold in a foreign economy places additional burdens on creative personnel.
5) Political and geographic boundaries do not necessarily circumscribe psychological and/or emotional attitudes associated with consumer decision making.

When cultures are at similar levels of economic development and possess cultural universals, a United States multinational organization may employ standardized promotional strategies.[7] When cultural, social and economic separation is significant, the universal approach may often produce less than optimum results.

Localization of Communication

Proponents of the localization approach to international mass communication assume that more effective communication occurs when the source and the receiver are homophilous, unless the source and the receiver have a high degree of empathy.[20] Due to the highly sophisticated communication channels and consumers in the United States the transferability of promotional strategies and campaigns to less developed economies is open to question. Business techniques are generally considered more cultural than rational. Therefore, a multinational promotional campaign must, by necessity, utilize locally oriented advertisements.[23] The localized approach to the development of promotional strategies assumes that individual, cultural and social differences among environments must be examined separately to determine the most efficient method (appeal and media) of communication.[6]

The attitude of a growing number of multinational mass communicators is that every promotional campaign must be contexturalized to the cultural and subcultural differences found between economies. This behavioralistic approach to mass communication places little credence in universality of wants and needs. Rather, a comprehensive investigation intervening cultural variables (uncontrollable variables) on decision-making is completed before encoding messages to perspective foreign consumers.[4] Variables that have been identified as relevant in localized promotional appeals include social structure,[2] degree of development of social mobility;[1] degree of nationalism,[19] religious institutions and influence,[1] language and dialect difference,[11] and the stage of economic and cultural development in a society.[17] These factors are often credited with forming a person's personality and buying behavior. As these factors change so do personalities; and therefore, so must advertising appeals and campaigns.[3]

Integrative Methodology for Development of Multinational Promotional Campaigns

Resolution of the localization-universality debate will come only after more is known about the principal variables influencing the successful or unsuccessful transfer of promotional campaigns and an integrative scheme is developed to cope with the environmental ambiguity.[21] Several authors have developed Euclidian Space and multivariate models to integrate the controllable and uncontrollable variables for multinational policy decision-making.[22] These models introduce both cross cultural and environmental variables to assist in the development and adoption of multinational marketing mixes. A major limitation of these models, however, is the high degree of quantitative sophistication necessary for implementation which is generally beyond the capabilities of all but the largest multinational firms.

The multistage approach proposed in this paper may be used to ascertain the degree of universality without the use of multivariate methods. The sequential steps in the analysis are: (1) development of a comparative frame of reference through economic analysis, (2) development of a progressive cross cultural analysis through environmental and cultural analysis; (3) determination of the degree of universality of products for foreign markets.

Development of Comparative Frame of Reference

To evoke a multinational marketing perspective, marketing managers should initially construct a comparative frame of reference to evaluate foreign market potential. The E.P.R.G. categorization scheme is a promising guide for developing this frame of reference.[10,18] The E.P.R.G. framework identified four types of attitudes or orientation toward internationalization associated with successive stages in the evolution of international operations: (1) ethnocentrism--domestic country/market orientation; (2) polycentrism host country/market orientation; (3) regiocentrism--regional area/market orientation; and (4) geocentrism--a world market orientation. The premise that underlies of E.P.R.G. framework is management's commitment to multinational operational operations. This support or lack of support will affect the degree of internationalization of marketing policies and functions.

The E.P.R.G. framework with limited modifications can be used to assist in the determination of the transferability of promotional strategies. The first step in the construction of a comparative frame of reference requires examination of domestic products and domestic target markets. This ethnocentric evaluation of domestic capability and promotional techniques is instrumental in soliciting promotion strategies for foreign target markets. The second step involves a regioncentric evaluation of multinational market groups, i.e., LAFTA, C.A.F.T.A. European Common Market, etc., selected because of their compatability and, generally, similar levels of economic development. It is assumed that greater homogeneity (economic, level of technology, rate of economic growth, etc.) would be observed within this multinational market group than between groups. The economic and technological indicators used in this phase include:

1) population (percentage increase in past ten years and forecast for next five years);
2) national income (percentage increase in last ten years, per capita and number of families per household);
3) private consumption expenditures for food, household durables, housing, and clothing, projection for next five years;
4) total export and imports by major trading partners;
5) manufacturing as a percentage of domestic product, average hourly earnings in manufacturing and projected increase in five years' earnings;
6) number of telephone, television, radio receivers and stations, percentage increase in the past ten years; and finally
7) electrical production and percentage change in the past five years. (See Figure 1.)

This analysis of the foreign economy established a hypothetical or "ideal" country to be used as a means of comparison in developing promotional strategies in each multinational market group.

Figure 1

E.R.P.G. Structural Analysis
in Constructuring a Comparative Frame

Step 1: Ethnocentric Analysis
(Domestic Product and Promotion Analysis)

↓

Step 2: Regiocentric Analysis
(Multinational Market Group Analysis)

↓

Step 3: Polycentric (subpolycentric) Analysis
(Host Country and Regional Analysis)

↓

Step 4: Geocentric Analysis
(World Market Potential Analysis)

The third step involves a polycentric and subpolycentric evaluation of specific foregin host countries. This technical level of the analysis should illustrate variations in stage and rate of economic development in each of the multinational market group countries. The subpolycentric data would indicate regional or population variation (intense population areas characterize many less developed economics) within each country which might influence promotional strategies. The last stage in the development of the comparative frame of reference would be geocentric determination or the universality of elements from one foreign country to another. In other words, once the gross adjustments are made between the domestic economy and the foreign economy a fine tuning of the process is necessary between the multinational market groups and finally between the individual foreign markets.

The comparative economic frame of reference highlights discrepancies in the 1) level of technological development; 2) stage of economic development; 3) degree of urbanization; 4) rate of economic growth; and 5) availability of communication networks. Without this artificial structure to evaluate potential markets, domestically trained marketers may use their own ethnocentric past experience to determine marketing strategies. The economic data also contributes to the possible transferability of domestic promotion campaigns. Additional cultural information is necessary to supplement the economic perspective of the comparative analysis.

Progressive Cross Cultural Analysis

A culture may be defined as the total setting of human existence including the material objects of human manufacturing techniques, social orientations or points of view and sanctioned ends that serve as immediate conditioning factors underlying behavior.[12] Individual cultures represent a multitude of complex problems for the mass communication process and the problems are compounded when communicating with two or more cultures simultaneously.

Culture and the subcultures analyses benefit the multinational mass communicator in the:

1) Determination of relevant motivations in a culture. What needs are fulfilled by our product and are their needs presently fulfilled?
2) Determination of characteristic behavior patterns. What are the characteristic buying behaviors? How frequently are products purchased, and how strong are the behavior patterns?
3) Determination of characteristic forms of decision-making. Does the culture have a studied or impulsive approach to decision-making?
4) Determination of promotional methods appropriate to the culture. What language taboos are noted; what language problems exist in promoting the product; and what media are available and used?[8]

The preceding problems necessitate an analysis of a culture before a mass communicator implements or transfers a promotional campaign from one culture to another. Cultural lag represents an additional problem that occurs which affects the communication process in less developed cultures and subcultures.[14] Ogburn observed that material innovations diffused and were adopted more readily than non-material ideas.[18] Therefore, the multinational mass communication process must incorporate known cultural symbols and needs to effectively communicate to a foreign culture. These problems necessitate a comparative analysis between cultures to provide information for adaptation of the communication process.

Cross cultural analysis methods are designed to discover similarities and differences among cultural patterns in a number of societies. This segmentation of world markets on cultural variables is based on the assumption that the market for a product, and concomitant promotional campaign, consists of highly heterogeneous groups of customers with heterogeneous demand characteristics.[24] Data used for cross cultural analysis is generally secondary in nature. The use of secondary data is beneficial from a cost and time standpoint but is also a limiting factor in the amount and quality of data available.

The basic approach to cross cultural analysis requires: 1) immersion in the culture being studied to gain familiarity with concepts, units of behavior and recurring problems; 2) determination of a method for classifying and comparison of observed phenomena; 3) statistical analysis of observed differences between cultures; and 4) testing these differences by returning to the original detailed data from the culture or by investigating additional field studies in the culture. The cultural data derived from the cross cultural analysis combined with the economic data generated in the comparative frame of reference assist in the determination of the universality of promotional strategies.

In order to adapt the cross cultural analysis process to the multinational organization, an additional element must be included to refine the basic process. Typically, cross cultural analyses are conducted between the domestic culture (A) and a foreign culture (B). When the mass communicator desires additional information concerning the cultural similarities and/or dissimilarities of a third country (C), a cross cultural analysis is initiated between countrries A & C (See Figure 2). This process continues for each country of interest to the mass communicator.

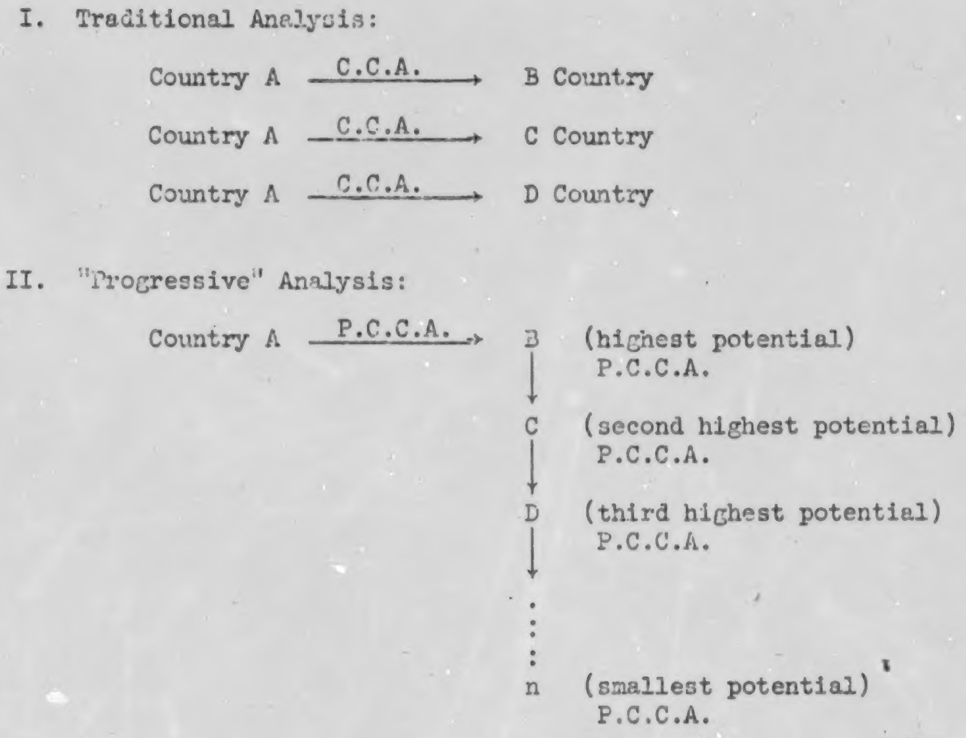
A progressive cross cultural analysis would follow the same basic research technique but would employ the economic/technological data derived in the development of comparative frame of reference to rank order potential target economies. With the techniques used in the comparative frame of reference, countries are economically/technically arrayed in order of highest potential. The progressive cross cultural analysis compares the domestic culture (A) with the foreign culture (B) with the highest economic potential. Then culture (B) is compared to foreign culture (C) with the next highest level of economic attraction and so forth through country (n). Continued refinement of cultural differences illustrates the less obvious cultural and subcultural differences often found in foreign environments. The promotional campaign may therefore be refined in each step of the analysis to reduce risk due to the lower economic potential of less attractive economies.

Degree of Product Universality

The remaining element to be considered in the multistage development of a multinational promotional campaign is the degree of universality of the

Figure 2

Traditional Cross-Cultural Analysis
as Compared to
Progressive Cross-Cultural Analysis


I. Traditional Analysis:
Country A
C.C.A.
B Country
Country A
C.C.A.
C Country
Country A
C.C.A.
D Country
II. "Progressive" Analysis:
Country A
P.C.C.A.
B
(highest potential)
P.C.C.A.
C
(second highest potential)
P.C.C.A.
D
(third highest potential)
P.C.C.A.
n
(smallest potential)
P.C.C.A.

product(s). Products vary in their degree of complexity. Products are composed of four interrelated elements: 1) physical form; 2) satisfactions derived; 3) utility to consumer, and 4) qualitative elements or assortment, close alternatives, satisfaction of minority needs, etc. Therefore, the complexity of products goes beyond the physical nature of the form utility of the product. The intangible aspects of perceived expectations of need satisfaction increase the uncertainty of the product acceptance. To determine the degree of acceptance of a product by a foreign culture (universality) the elements that influence the diffusion of innovations must be closely considered.

The ease or difficulty of introduction of ideas and/or products depends basically on the nature of the "newness" of the ideal product as viewed by the consumer.[25] A set of characteristics of innovation (new products) which are mutually exclusive and are universally relevant are: 1) relative advantage of the product; 2) compatibility of the product; 3) complexity of the product; 4) trialability of the product; and 5) observability of the product. The relative advantage of a product is the degree to which the new product is perceived as being better than the product it supersedes. The relative advantage of a new idea, as perceived by members of a social system, is positively related to its rate of adoption.[20] The compatibility of the product is the degree to which a product is perceived as being consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of the perceivers. A new product may be compatible with sociocultural values and beliefs, with previously used products and with individual consumer needs. An idea that is not compatible with the salient characteristics of a social system will not be adopted as rapidly as an idea that is compatible.[1]

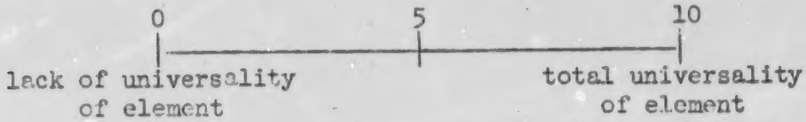
The complexity of a new product is the degree to which the product is perceived as being relatively difficult to use or to learn to use by the consumer. The learning of new skills to operate or service a new product may directly affect the rate of acceptance. Therefore, the complexity of a new product, as perceived by the consumer is negatively related to its rate of adoption.[20] The degree of finalability of the product will influence the acceptance of the product. The consumers' ability to experience need satisfaction from the product without total commitment to purchase will influence acceptance. The observability of a new product is the degree to which the product is visible to others in the social system. The distinction between material (products) versus nonmaterial (services) innovations directly influences the rate of acceptance in many cultures.[18]

Additional factors that may influence the acceptance of United States produced products in foreign economies are: 1) the image of United States produced products in the culture; 2) the relative price of the product; 3) the degree of sophistication of the consumer; 4) cultural similarity (basic philosophy, religion, language, etc.); 5) government restrictions/influence on the introduction of goods produced by a foreign (in this case United States) producer.

Multinational marketers must therefore develop a function of universality of products to be used in foreign cultures. Each element of the function could range from zero universality to total universality (one). Maximum utility for a product would be ten points, or one point for each function of the universality equation. (See Figure 3.)

Figure 3

Universality of Each Product


0
5
10
lack of universality of element
total universality of element

Therefore, the function may be described as

$$^{o}U = F(RA+C+Cx+T+O+I+RP+S+CS+G)$$

where

^{o}U = degree of product universality
RA = relative advantage of the product
C = compatibility of the product
Cx = complexity of the product
T = trialability of the product
O = observability of the product
I = image of U.S. goods in the foreign economy
RP = relative price of the product
S = degree of sophistication of the consumer
CS = cultural similarity affects product acceptance
G = government restrictions/influences on the product

There are inherent problems in subjective valuation of elements by the multinational marketer but several estimates (minimum, average, maximum) may be developed to assist in promotional decision making.

Summary & Conclusions

A solution to the multitude of problems involved in communicating to a variety of cultures simultaneously cannot be resolved solely through a standardized or localized promotional campaign. Research must begin to develop integrative schemes to employ the favorable attributes of each basic philosophy. This paper has suggested a methodology for employing universal economic analysis useful in a comparative frame of reference for decision making and in addition, described a process for the development of a progressive cross cultural analysis that emphasized the effects of local cultural variables on promotional strategies and campaigns and the determination of product universality. These interrelated steps incorporate concepts from standardized and localized promotional philosophies which aid in the solution of multinational promotion problems.

Additional research should focus on: 1) determining the degree of universality of products and product lines; 2) isolating cultural and environmental variables that are of greatest importance by product class, industry, etc.; 3) prioritizing (weighting) the variables for decision making; and 4) measuring the effects of cultural variables on the communication process. Advancements in these areas should further assist marketing managers in arriving at multinational promotion decisions.

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PENETRATION ANALYSIS WITHIN A "CONFINED INTERNATIONAL MARKET"

by
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Many marketers have conditioned themselves to treat various trade areas within a metropolitan area as representative of the demographic profile of that metropolitan area. Yet, some retailers who may be situated in particular "isolated trade areas" within the trade area may find it impractical and almost impossible to view the market in such a manner.

Bexar County (San Antonio) Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area is composed of approximately 52% Mexican-American population. It has a large percentage of military residents and a large medical-educational complex. It is metropolitan in many ways yet certain trade areas within the city of San Antonio are so completely Mexican-American that Spanish is spoken exclusively.

In those unique trade areas which appear to be culturally and socially isolated from other parts of San Antonio, retailers are forced to behave in a marketing managerial fashion which often deviates from their city-wide norm.

The trade areas which are composed of a high number of Mexican-Americans present little problem to many of the very small "Mom and Pop" retailers who are, themselves, Mexican-American and speak Spanish in their stores. Even many large retailers in those areas suffer little communications disadvantages because many of the residents of the area are also employees in the stores. Thus, the employees know and use their Spanish in the stores.

However, many supermarket managers who use English-oriented advertisements in the local domestic market expect the Spanish-speaking market to be penetrated with those same advertisements. It appears easy to think of "chain advertising" and its strength of reaching all residents in a given city. Even retailers who have tried to implement Spanish-oriented advertisements in print media have discovered a high rate of illiteracy among the residents of certain trade areas.

As a result, a critical question exists regarding advertising in such a market: Should advertisers in a significantly-mixed ethnic market treat the market more as a "confined international market" than as a local domestic market? And if the answer is yes, exactly what kind of advertising program can supermarket retailers use to reach the ethnic market?

Purpose

With this information in mind, the researchers established two primary purposes:

1. To determine the degree to which a local market can resemble an international market as a result of differences in languages spoken and understood; and
2. To determine the degree to which advertisers must copy with illiteracy (regarding the native language) when choosing media in such a "confined international market."

Methodology

Two themes of a chain-supermarket were selected for testing. The supermarket operates primarily in South Texas with approximately 27 stores in San Antonio. The stores in San Antonio are dispersed throughout the city, both in Anglo areas and predominately Mexican-American areas.

Advertising for the San Antonio stores is coordinated by a single advertising agency and while some Spanish advertisements had been used in the past, most of the promotion for all stores had been conducted in English. It was assumed that the campaigns were penetrating even though, in particular trade areas, the clientele of the stores consisted of almost 100% Mexican-American.

It should be pointed out that a large number of Mexican-Americans in San Antonio do speak English very well. However, tendencies do exist that in certain residential and trade areas, Spanish is the dominant language and many of the residents do not speak English.

Two hundred respondents with Spanish surnames were selected at random and interviewed by telephone in the Bexar County SMSA. The respondents clustered in the Western quadrant of San Antonio due to the fact that a large majority of Mexican-American residents in Bexar County are located in that residential area.

Each respondent was tested with the themes:

GOLDEN SERVICE, (The Store of) and INFLATION FIGHTER PRICES.

Each theme had previously been tested among Anglo respondents for penetration and store-association. In those tests, both themes had ranged between 70 and 82% in penetration and store-association.

Both themes had been used both city-wide and state-wide in predominately Anglo and Spanish-speaking areas with equal frequency. The themes had been used in in-store displays, point of purchase displays, and in other promotional situations.

Consideration was made, at one point, to attempt to directly translate the themes into Spanish and use those themes in Spanish trade areas. However, the themes do not lend themselves to direct translation and since no suitable substitute could be created, the English versions were used.

Findings

Findings related to penetration and correct store association are presented in Tables I and II.

TABLE I

Penetration of the Tested Themes

Theme	Penetration
"Inflation Fighter Prices"	46.0%
"Golden Service"	28.5%

TABLE II

Correct Store-Association

Theme	Correct Association
"Inflation Fighter Prices"	53.5%
"Golden Service"	23.5%

Further analysis of the trade area revealed that approximately 24% of the residents had third-grade or lower level command of Spanish. The literacy rate of those who may read English is assumed by local authorities to be much lower. As a result, even though the themes were not penetrating the market well as they were being used in English, it may be safely assumed that they probably would not have penetrated to a significantly greater degree had they been used in Spanish in print media.

The problem, as perceived in this particular case, was the use of the English themes coupled with the use of print media. As a result of the use of print media, readers who may have been penetrated with broadcast media (through use of the English themes) were not penetrated because literacy of both English and Spanish is so low in the particular trade area.

Implications

1. It appears that advertisers should not expect an English theme to penetrate a locally-situated market where the native language is not entirely English. Rather, the market should be viewed as a "confined international market" and languages spoken in the area should be considered in addition to English when promotion decisions are being made.
2. Advertisers should investigate literacy of such a market before making decisions to use print media in connection with any kind of promotion, be it in English or Spanish.

Results

As a result of the findings, decisions were made to drop the themes completely in the trade areas under study. A Spanish theme was developed to read "Compra Mas Por Menos Dinero" and is used exclusively in the area. It reads simply in Spanish and translates well into English as "Buy More for Less Money."

In addition to the theme change, a decision was made to drop print media and use broadcast media exclusively even though in supermarket promotion print media usually is more effective in terms of giving shoppers a written record of prices for comparison purposes.

Other changes were made related to in-store promotion to relate to the Spanish-speaking market. Point of purchase signs were made in Spanish, window cards were printed in Spanish and announcements for the intercom in the store were made in Spanish.

Several other merchandising changes were made in the stores to more fully orient them to the particular market in the trade area.

Sales Data

Sales data were measured for the comparitive twelve-week period one year previous to the date after full implementation of all promotional changes.

Sales were shown to have increased by 30% and the change is believed to be directly related to the change in promotional and merchandising strategy rather then change in population or income in the trade area.

Summary

"Chain Store Merchandising" is a concept which may nor may not be effective in areas where there are significant numbers of ethnic groups or non-English speaking groups.

Each chain or group manager operating in such a trade area would be wise to attempt to define whether his market is truly "domestic" or whether it is, in fact, a "confined international market."

SESSION VII: PERSPECTIVES ON SPECIAL INTEREST AREAS - (3) PUBLIC RELATIONS

JOURNALISM ENROLLMENT STUDY

by
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At the present time enrollment in journalism school is estimated to be 48,000 plus. This is an increase of approximately 60 per cent in the last five years. This rapid growth has put severe strains on faculties and facilities at most journalism schools leading to quotas and stricter prerequisites for admission to courses at several schools.

The present study is an attempt to examine enrollment in the various areas of communication to see how advertising and public relations compares to other areas.

Methodology:

A survey was mailed in December, 1973 to selected members of the American Academy of Advertising at 50 journalism schools. Questions concerned two areas: 1) enrollment during the current academic year compared to five years ago; and, 2) predictions in the advertising or public relations professions which might affect future enrollment. A return of 23 questionnaires (46%) was obtained representing 15,179 students (31.6% of all journalism students).

Enrollment Summary:

Table I shows the total enrollment changes in journalism schools during the previous five years. The figures are broken down by men, women, and minority students.

TABLE I. JOURNALISM SCHOOL

Enrollment Data

	Total	Men	Women	Minorities
Fall 1973	15179 (23)*	8423 (23)	6756 (23)	481 (22)
Avg/School	659	375	274	21
Fall 1968	9081 (20)	4286 (18)	3895 (18)	40 (8)
Avg/School	454	237	212	5
% Change 1968-1973	45.2	58.7	29.2	400.0

*Indicates number of schools responding in each category.

Table I confirms what those of us who have been in journalism education any time at all already know. We are faced with a flood of students! Of much more importance is Table II which breaks down enrollments by departments and sequences. The figures are useful in spotting trends, but a difficulty in comparing data is the fact that areas of specialization have been added over the last few years so there were fewer schools reporting enrollment breakdowns from 1968.

While the figures themselves no doubt suffer from problems of reporting enrollment in various areas, it is clear that advertising enrollment has suffered. The reasons are probably several, but in the time remaining it might be of interest to share with you the answers given by some members of the Academy.

The two most mentioned factors which will determine the short term future of advertising education (and enrollment) were 1) the energy crisis, and 2) the public confidence in advertising and public relations as honorable occupations. Only two respondents expressed unqualified optimism in the future of advertising education. Most of you felt that the opportunities in communication, particularly news editorial, were unlimited, but that advertising and public relations were at the mercy of several unpredictable and uncontrollable factors.

TABLE II

Journalism School Enrollment by
Area of Specialization

	Fall, 1973	Avg/School	Fall, 1968	Avg/School	% Change
Advertising	2116 (19)	111	1921 (14)	130	(-14.6)
Broadcast-Film	3261 (19)	171	1635 (14)	117	(37.5)
Public Relations	978 (10)	98	724 (8)	88	(11.3)
News-Editorial	4255 (20)	212	3301 (19)	173	(22.5)

COMMUNICATION WITH MIDDLE CLASS BLACKS:
A PUBLIC RELATIONS PERSPECTIVE

by
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The swiftness of the "black revolution" has thrust upon American business the need to adjust public relations activities to accommodate the rapidly changing attitudes and aspirations of a relatively new and hitherto unknown constituency: the black American. By now, some expertise has emerged and new approaches have been generated to meet these new conditions. For many years, however, almost the sole area of interface (aside from employment) between the black American and the American corporation has been the advertisements of the businessman. Even today, with the many black community relations programs and black staff representatives and officers now found in many American companies, it is likely that advertisements are still the chief area of interface with black community and thus still constitute a major (if not the chief) public relations arm of the American corporation.

Advertising practices have undergone much scrutiny and change with reference to their treatment of and effects on blacks. This includes advertisements directed at the general public as well as blacks. This scrutiny includes accusations by Sociologists Colfax and Steinberg that advertisements were replete with negative racial stereotypes of blacks; investigations of effects of "integrated" advertisements; of the impact of advertising on blacks and the black community; some special studies of advertising in black media; and so on. There are, in these areas, many unresolved questions, and, in so rapidly a changing situation, new questions continually emerge.[1]

This is a report on one aspect of the interface between the black community and the business community. It analyzes the advertisements directed specifically at blacks by some of the American business community. Advertisements not only help sell products but they convey an image of the advertiser to the receiver of the message. In the case of many black Americans whose direct contact with the business community is minimal, a major part of their image of American business is gained through advertising. Since advertisers try to cater to their publics, they create advertisements in terms they consider appropriate to the reader. Thus, possibly ironically, the black's image of the advertiser is in some way a reflection of the advertiser's image of the black.

This study analyzes the kind of image the advertiser has been directing at the black by analyzing the kind of black the advertiser has been addressing. Further, since events and attitudes have been changing swiftly, the study is concerned not only with the image being projected, but in the change of image over time. Change is a measure of sensitivity on the part of the advertiser to changing black attitudes.

The study consists of an analysis of advertisements which appear in Ebony, the most widely circulated, and possibly the most prestigious publication directed toward the general black public. *Ebony* is generally oriented at the middle-class black, although it claims a "secondary" readership which includes considerable portions of lower-than-middle class. In fact, in a very recent study, *Ebony* carefully indicates that its readers (not necessarily its subscribers) differ very little from the general black population in terms of age, sex, income and marital status, but rank higher in education.[2] Glazer described *Ebony* as "more self-help oriented than the protest-rooted Negro newspapers, and its circulation in New York is probably greater than that of the local New York weekly community newspaper, the Amsterdam News."[3] This writer has observed some growth of protest-oriented articles in more recent years.

Measurements are made in this study of attitudes expressed in the *Ebony* advertisements in the following general areas: attitudes of blacks toward blacks; toward whites and the black-white relationship; toward home and family; and toward self. Results are compared with measurements of blacks' attitudes in these areas which are derived from other sources. In all these measurements and comparisons, emphasis is place on observation of change over time.

Method

The methodology consists of content analysis of the advertisements in *Ebony*. The indicators of attitudes expressed in advertisements in the areas under study are the contents of illustrations, the products advertised, and the types of appeals made in *Ebony* advertisements during selected years in the period 1950 through 1972.

The procedure consists of analyzing advertisements appearing in the June and December issues of *Ebony* in the years 1950, 1955, 1960, 1965 through 1972. Each annual sample consists of between 357 and 446 separate advertisements. Characteristics or contents of advertisements are tabulated either by number of advertisements or by column inches of advertising. Totals for each indicator characteristic are then expressed as proportions of total number of advertisements or column inches in the issues. No special consideration is given to the position or color of the ad. Statistics for years subsequent to 1950 are presented in tables as multiples of the proportions found characteristic of the 1950 issues--that is, 1950 is used as the base year.

Blacks, Whites, and the Black-White Relationship

The Measurements. Changes in perceived black attitudes toward blacks, whites and the black-white relationship are measured by changes in the race of models used, in the presence of "natural" or "Afro" haircuts and in the presence of the daishiki, an African-inspired shirt or blouse. More specifically, the following are considered measurements of the extent to which advertisers have recognized and catered to what, for convenience, will be called black pride. The counts include:

1. Advertisements which make use of black models only.
2. Advertisements which include the presence of "natural" or "Afro" haircut.
3. Advertisements which include the presence of the daishiki.

To measure attitudes toward integration with whites and/or to adopt white esthetic and other values, counts are made of:

1. "Integrated" advertisements which use models of both races.
2. Advertisements which make use of white models only.
3. Advertisements which use models of indeterminate race. (There are advertisements which use photographic techniques or artwork that give insufficient cues as to the race of the model.)
4. Advertisements which include no people. Intentionally or untentionally, such advertisement skirt the question of race.
5. Advertisement for products such as skin lighteners, hair straighteners, and wigs.

The Findings. Table 1 shows that advertisers in Ebony believe that there has been a growth of emphasis on the worth of black people among blacks. Generally, the proportions of advertisements using black models only have increased. In contrast, there have been marked decreases in the proportions of advertisements featuring models of indeterminate race. These were down by 46 percent in 1971 and by 75 percent in 1972. There was an even greater decrease--by 84 and 86 percent in the same two years--of advertisements with white models only. But 1972, ads for hair straighteners (male) and for skin lighteners (female) disappeared. Even the proportions of advertising space for hair straighteners for females which had increased during 1966-1970 dropped below the 1950 level in 1971 and 1972. Finally, the proportions of ads for wigs for females, despite the popularity of wigs among females of all races, dropped back below the 1950 level in 1970, and remained lower in subsequent years. (Further, some of the wigs advertised were "Afro" wigs.)

Measurement of the very recent phenomena, the "Afro" look and the daishiki can not use 1950 data for a base. In the 1960 issues, one of the 445 advertisements featured a model with an "Afro" look. By 1971 and 1972 these proportions had grown to 25.8 and 33.1 percent, respectively. Daishikis still remained rare--in the neighborhood of one appearance per issue.

Of some interest will be the rapidity with which advertisers adopt the more recent "corn row" hair style, should it gain popularity among American blacks. A recent article in Ebony discusses whether the "Afro" is becoming outmoded, indicating that the "Afro" has no basis in African culture, whereas the "corn row," a more recent hair style, does have such a basis.[4] Thus far, the "corn row" has not appeared, either in editorial content photographs or in advertisements, with a frequency sufficient to test the advertisers' sensitivity to changes in black modes.

One possible "counter blackness" trend is evident. Advertisements which did not use human models grew by 26 percent by 1972. This might be interpreted as an evasion of the race question, but it is unlikely in view of all the other phenomena cited.

An important indicator of the advertisers' perception of black attitudes toward integration with whites has undergone some interesting changes. Until 1971 there has been a steady increase in the proportion of "integrated" ads. By 1970 the proportion of such ads was 4.23 times that of the proportion in 1950. The years 1971 and 1972 witnessed a rather precipitous drop to 1.34 and 2.07 in this ratio.

In sum, Table 1 shows increased emphasis on physical negritude and possibly black pride, especially in 1971 and 1972. These results do not necessarily show complete rejection of some white esthetic standards or a rejection of integration. The proportions of integrated ads does remain relatively high. Further, the increase in ads without human models, probably accounts for some of the drop in the proportion of "integrated" ads.

The results shown in Table 1 indicate that the advertisers have changed their approaches, apparently in response to perceived changes in their market targets. These changes are not dissimilar from changes in similar indicators found in data external to this study.

The veering toward the Afro and general emphasis on black pride corresponds to similar phenomena observed in an analysis of photographs in Ebony connected with editorial content as distinct from advertisements. That study did not go beyond the 1970 issues.[5] The 25.8 percent (in 1971) and the 33.1 percent in 1972 of models shown in advertisements having "Afros" is quite close to the 31 percent found among major subjects in editorial content photographs in 1970. The advertisers did not lag far behind the editorial staff of Ebony.

The decrease in proportions of "white only" photographs that occurred in advertisements was even more precipitate than that in the editorial content photographs. By 1970, the proportions were 29 percent of the 1950 proportions, in the case of advertisements, and 59 percent in the case of editorial content. Thus advertisers outstripped the editorial staff in emphasis on black models or subjects. By 1970, the proportions of ads showing only black models was 1.15 as large as that in 1950; the corresponding proportion for editorial photographs is 0.84. Thus, in both cases, advertisers are emphasizing blackness even more than the editorial staff of Ebony.

Advertisers, on the other hand, have also outstripped editors in emphasis on integration--by a considerable margin. By 1970, 4.23 times as high (as in 1950) a proportion of ads were "integrated," whereas the corresponding figure for editorial photographs is 1.64. The advertisers did decrease the relative proportions of integrated ads to 1.84 and 2.07 for 1971 and 1972 respectively, indicators which are must more comparable to the 1.64 for editorial content photographs.

These data also show correspondence to a 1972 survey and analysis undertaken by Yankelovich for Ebony. This Yankelovich-Ebony study shows strong emphasis on black identification and lessened, but still high, emphasis on integration as the solution to inequities.[6]

In sum, advertisers are generally presenting to the readers of Ebony images which have apparently kept pace with the changing attitudes of the blacks.

Orientation Toward White Middle-Class Standards

The Measurements. Measurements are made of what are considered indicators of emphasis on some commonly identified white middle-class values. These

Table 1

EBONY ADVERTISEMENTS RELEVANT TO
BLACK-WHITE RELATIONSHIPS[a]
(1950 = 1.00)

Proportions of Ads	1955	1960	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
With Black Models Only	0.90	1.10	1.10	1.05	1.00	1.09	1.17	1.15	0.91	1.05
With White Models Only	1.43	0.61	0.39	0.52	0.55	0.46	0.52	0.29	0.16	0.14
Which are "Integrated"	0.46	0.46	1.00	2.31	2.31	3.92	3.00	4.23	1.24	2.07
With Models of Indeterminate Race	0.53	0.79	0.45	0.69	0.46	0.63	0.33	0.75	0.54	0.25
Without Human Models	1.06	1.03	1.17	1.10	1.16	1.04	1.06	1.02	1.25	1.26
For Hair Straighteners (Male)[b]	0.22	1.00	0.78	0.06	1.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
For Hair Straighteners (Female)[b]	1.30	1.40	0.95	1.20	2.35	2.30	2.40	1.70	0.25	0.90
For Wigs (Female)[b]	0.38	0.06	0.74	0.51	0.28	0.87	1.02	0.68	0.63	0.75
For Skin Lighteners (Female)[b,c]	1.06	1.50	0.88	0.81	0.63	0.56	0.25	0.38	0.16	0.00

[a] Source: June and December issues of Ebony magazine for the years 1950, 1955, 1960, 1965–1972.

[b] Measurements made in terms of advertising space rather than number of advertisements.

[c] There were no ads for male skin lighteners.

include career success through work, the value of education, the worth of the family, and the home as a symbol of achievement. Because of the post-Moynihan-report (1965) attention recently devoted to the matriarchal nature of the black society and the alleged limbo status of the black male, measurements are also made of increased positive emphasis on the male.[7] Thus, changes in the proportions of advertisements which feature the following are measured:

1. Advertisements featuring males or females.
2. Advertisements featuring adults or children.
3. Advertisements featuring a family group (adult-child combination).
4. Advertisements by job recruiters.
5. Advertisements for educational products and services.
6. Advertisements for home appliances.
7. Advertisements appealing to the desire for career success.

The Findings. Table 2 shows that growth in the indicators of orientation toward white middle class standards are much less convincing than are the growth in indicators of black pride, shown in Table 1. Some trends appear in these indicators, but they are not very strong.

No trends are apparent in the data regarding the ages and sexes of people shown in advertisements. The data for the years 1971 and 1972, however, do show a sharply increased emphasis on the family. This emphasis accords with the sustained high emphasis on advertisements for home appliances. While advertisements for appliances do reflect the increased economic strength of the black American, their presence also conveys something about the priorities ascribed to the black consumer. The home and its contents evidently appear to be achieving higher priority.

Improved economics may also be reflected in the employers' recruiting ads and the increased proportions of ads appealing to the desire for career success It should be emphasized, however, that these data do also denote adherence to white midle-class standards.

In general, these findings correspond to attitudes found to exist in the black community. The value of familism was found to be strong in the Yankelovich survey. This survey found belief in familism, economic self-sufficiency, and other "protestant ethic" values to be even somewhat more strongly held among blacks than among whites. Only in orientation toward achievement/advancement were blacks found to be substantially lower than whites.[8]

Emphasis on education and career success (the latter possibly inappropriately) seem to have increased even more in the ads than previously found in the study of editorial content photographs.[9]

Orientation and Values

The Measurements. A third group of measurements are intended to detect changes perceived by businessmen to have occurred in blacks' interests, motives, and values, largely by measuring the changes in the kinds of appeals and the kinds of products advertised. Some of the data in the previous section, such as advertisements for educational products and services, and those appealing to the desire for career success are equally relevant here.

Table 2

ADS RELEVANT TO WHITE MIDDLE-CLASS STANDARDS ORIENTATION[a]

(1950 = 1.00)

Proportions of Ads	1955	1960	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
With Male Adults	0.79	1.14	1.12	1.04	1.02	1.09	1.05	1.42	0.75	0.83
With Female Adults	1.03	0.93	0.80	0.89	0.75	0.92	0.87	0.93	0.73	0.68
With Male Child	1.96	2.43	0.70	1.30	0.65	1.48	0.96	1.55	0.52	0.69
With Female Child	0.71	0.77	1.03	1.23	0.48	0.84	0.55	1.16	0.35	0.77
With Family Group	0.55	1.57	0.62	1.33	0.33	1.14	0.29	0.71	1.28	1.52
Recruiting for Employees[b]	0.61	0.42	0.35	0.45	2.15	1.45	1.18	1.39	0.94	1.28
For Educational Products and Services[b]	0.12	0.18	0.83	0.53	0.71	1.28	1.12	2.06	2.11	1.70
For Major Appliances[b]	18.00	14.00	13.50	33.00	15.50	27.50	23.00	13.50	16.00	19.00
For Small Appliances[b]	3.47	0.94	2.41	2.06	1.95	2.00	0.71	4.71	4.41	3.00
Appealing to Desire for Career Success[b]	0.50	0.39	0.56	1.11	2.39	1.67	1.11	1.67	1.94	2.55

[a] Source: June and December issues of *Ebony* magazine for the years 1950, 1955, 1960, 1965–1972.

[b] Measurement made in terms of advertising space rather than number of advertisements.

The set of measurements consists of advertisements which feature the following:

1. Appeals to social acceptance or prestige.
2. Appeals to desire for health.
3. Appeals to physical comfort.
4. Appeals to mental comfort.
5. Appeals to sex attraction.
6. Advertisements for patent medicines.
7. Advertisements for travel and vacation.
8. Advertisements for insurance.
9. Endorsements.

These criteria are intended to further assess the kind of person with whom the advertiser considers himself to be dealing, and thus the image of himself that he is projecting. Appeals to the desire for the health and mental comfort are considered symptomatic of a lower standard of well-being than are appeals to creature comforts and advertisements for travel, vacations, and insurance. Concentration on "lower order" appeals create an over-all "lower order" impression of the business community. Similarly, appeals to sex attraction and advertisements for patent medicines are considered to be of "lower order" than appeals to social acceptance and prestige. Endorsements are considered to be a negative indicator, since they frequently appeal to the vicarious success and fantasy life which Frazier, Hare, and other students of the black sociology view with dismay as characteristic of some of black middle-class society.[10] Endorsements may also be regarded as a sign of lower sophistication.

The Findings. Table 3 shows noteworthy reductions in the appeals to the desire for health and for patent medicines to have occurred during the later years. Aside from a one-year (1971) increase in the frequency of endorsements, the over-all decreasing pattern is convincing. Advertisers may indeed regard the black market as being higher-classed or more sophisticated than previously.

These observations are also pertinent to questions regarding the Frazier-Hare type of fantasy-filled middle class. The greater emphasis on insurance, jobs, and physical comfort, the lower emphasis on sex attraction, endorsements, patent medicines, all indicate that more sophistication and less fantasy are being attributed to the black middle class by advertisers. Thus, to the black, the image of the advertiser (and thus the white business community) has become more sophisticated and more respectful of blacks and black society.

Conclusions

American business evidently considers the middle-class black as part of the "mainstream" of America. Particularly in areas involving orientations and values, the black is regarded as already close and moving closer to the orientations and values of white middle-class America. This is also true of a movement to so white middle-class standards, such as emphasis on the home and family. All in all, the image of the middle-class black which is held by the advertisers in *Ebony* is an increasingly positive one, in terms of white middle-class standards. To the extent that ongoing economic and societal

Table 3

ADS RELEVANT TO ORIENTATION AND VALUES OF EBONY READERS[a]
(1950 = 1.00)

Proportions of Ads[b]	1955	1960	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Appealing Social Acceptance and Prestige	1.27	1.19	1.19	1.08	1.11	1.31	1.12	c	1.53	1.18
Appealing to Desire for Health	1.17	1.37	0.60	0.94	1.14	1.09	0.63	0.89	0.71	0.48
Appealing to Physical Comfort	2.25	2.15	1.80	2.85	2.15	1.65	1.70	c	3.30	5.90
Appealing to Mental Comfort	1.31	1.21	1.55	1.31	1.49	1.55	1.17	o	1.17	1.13
Appealing to Sex Attraction	0.96	0.87	0.75	0.31	0.79	1.04	1.08	1.04	1.14	1.03
Advertising Patent Medicines	0.92	0.89	1.03	1.03	1.11	0.49	0.65	0.57	0.65	0.45
Advertising Travel and Vacations	1.30	1.55	1.80	2.55	2.05	2.20	2.65	2.40	3.70	4.60
Advertising Insurance	1.63	0.63	1.75	2.38	1.28	2.00	2.50	4.50	5.37	3.37
Featuring Endorsements	1.03	1.03	0.88	0.84	0.56	0.41	0.44	0.68	2.53	0.96

[a] Source: June and December issues of Ebony magazine for the years 1950, 1955, 1960, 1965-1972.

[b] Measurements are based on column inches of advertising space.

[c] Unavailable for internal reasons.

changes are actually moving the black in these directions, the image of American business projected to the black via advertisements in Ebony is thus an increasingly positive one.

Advertisers view the black American as still wishing to share with the white American those goods (and possible ideals) which seem representative of American society, but more on his own terms and probably in an integrated society.

It should be noted, however, that advertisers, especially in the last two years, have given recognition to the adoption of more militant or separatist attitudes by middle-class blacks. What this signifies is difficult to assess. But the appeals to integration of people (as distinct from the integration of values and standards) have diminished during the final two years observed, 1971 and 1972. While it is true that advertisers do not consider that the average Ebony reader shares greatly, in his consumer behavior, in the separatist fervor which some rhetoric indicates to be widespread, it may also be true that advertisers discern either a diminution of hopes for, or a disenchantment with, the possible benefits of integration.

Some data external to this study seem to support the judgments of the Ebony advertisers. Barban and Cundiff found Negroes' attitudes toward integrated advertising to be positive, as of 1964.[11] A more recent study published in 1970 found that 27 percent of the interviewed blacks expressed negative feelings about integrated ads. This was found particularly true of respondents under thirty years of age.[12] These later findings may correspond to the changes noted in the previous paragraph.

A Time-Louis Harris poll (1970) found that the black man still wished to improve his education, skills and economic well-being, all in a white community. The poll shows "moderate" Negroes and Negro organizations ranking highest in respect accorded them by the Negro population. Time also concluded that the blacks, even the militant blacks, are "indeed faithful dreamers of the American dream," and wish to consume as the white does and share in the material progress.[13] Similarly, the cited study of illustrations connected with the editorial content of Ebony has trends similar in direction to the trends shown in advertisements in Ebony.[14] All this, plus evidence from the Yankelovich survey, indicate that the advertisers in Ebony may be right, or at worst, not erring badly. The advertisers also have displayed considerable sensitivity and low reaction time to changes in the black mood.

In summary, the social role of the advertiser in Ebony may be judged to be a positive one, and is getting progressively more so, if we judge positive to entail sensitivity to both basic directions and changing aspirations of the black American. In an era of high black sensitivity, rapidly changing moods, and possibly explosiveness, this is indeed a formidable task and a generally laudable performance.

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WE HUFF AND WE PUFF, BUT CAN WE REALLY PUMP THE CANDIDATE UP? FACT AND FANCY IN POLITICAL CAMPAIGN TELEVISION

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In a column written during the 1972 presidential campaign, satirist Art Buchwald suggested scenarios for political campaign spots to be used by the two candidates. For the incumbent, he suggested this:

> I could see Pat Nixon, cooking a steak over a campfire. She says to the audience, 'I've been First Lady for almost four years and yet I feel younger now than when Dick first took the job as President. That's because I exercise, get eight hours sleep, eat right...and take iron for my blood. Dick treats me better now than he did when I used to wear a cloth coat.'
>
> Just then we see Richard Nixon walking toward Pat. He's dressed in a plaid wool shirt and blue jeans. He comes behind her and kisses her on the neck. Then he says to the camera, 'My wife, I think I'll keep her.'

Buchwald was making fun of the popular belief that presidential candidates can be merchandised like soap or Geritol. Joe McGinniss in particular has given credence to this belief in his widely read The Selling of the President 1968. But faith in the power of television is part of the folklore of the "new politics;" the faith does not spring solely from McGinniss.

The new politics is characterized by sophisticated use of the mass media, the use of elaborate polls and computer technology, and the retaining of professional campaign firms to back up the grassroots work of career politicians and political volunteer workers.

This paper takes a brief look at one aspect of the new politics, the use of paid and unpaid television in political campaigns. The first section of the paper covers a few of the highlights in the use of campaign television in presidential elections. The second section provides background material on 17 key questions about campaign television.

No attempt is made to provide definitive answers to any of the 17 questions raised in the second section. Political techniques change from day to day as the somewhat whimsical mind of the electorate changes. Anyone looking for absolutes in the field of political groundrules is likely to find only fool's gold. The absolutes don't exist in a state where everything is in constant flux.

Although the axioms of political campaigning may change, it still behooves everyone--plain citizens as well as the advertising and public-relations people working for candidates--to stay abreast of trends in American politics. At the simplest level, Herbert Alexander, a scholar on campaign financing, has estimated that there are some 500,000 elective offices in the United States. He further calculates that candidates for only those posts which were open in November, 1972, spent in the neighborhood of $400,000,000 trying to get elected.[1] When money of that kind must be raised and changes hands, corruption of the democratic process is invited. The lessons of Watergate make that clear.

I. Television and the Presidential Campaign

Television first appeared in the American presidential campaign in 1928. In August of that year, the General Electric Company did a pick-up of Governor Al Smith of New York accepting the Democratic Party's nomination on the steps of the statehouse in Albany. The remote feed was telecast by GE's experimental station in Schenectady, 15 miles away.[2] The audience was of course inconsequential.

In 1940, television covered a political nominating convention for the first time. The audience for telecasts of the Republican and Democratic national conventions consisted of 40,000 to 100,000 persons in Philadelphia and New York.[3]

World War II interrupted the growth of television, but after the war, development proceeded rapidly.

In 1948, there were about 350,000 homes in the U.S. with television receivers fed by 36 stations.[4] The medium was not yet potent enough for candidates Truman and Dewey to use it in their campaigns to any significant extent. By 1950, at least one congressional candidate used television as part of his campaign mix, as the number of receivers and transmitters swelled dramatically.

By 1952, the television audience had grown to 18,000,000 homes. The time was ripe for the medium to be used effectively in the nation. The Republican Party, running Dwight D. Eisenhower and Richard M. Nixon, seized the opportunity.

Part of the campaign strategy consisted of providing television coverage of Eisenhower's campaign speeches. As William Small puts it:

> It is said that Batten, Barton, Durstine and Osborn orchestrated Ike's half-hour appearances in a three-act play. Act One was a heroic arrival, Ike coming through the back of the auditorium, working his way through the wildly cheering throng, mounting the platform, waving, smiling, looking at Mamie, holding up arms to stop applause while grinning at its continuance. Act Two was the speech. Act Three was the departure, a reverse of Act One. The speech was never more than twenty minutes long...[6]

The television spot advertising strategy for Eisenhower's campaign came from a source other than BBD&O, however.[7]

In 1952, Rosser Reeves of Ted Bates & Company was already well-known in advertising circles for his concept of the "unique selling point"--the idea that to merchandise one brand in a field of similar products it was necessary to give the brand a distinguishing characteristic that seemed to make it different from all competitor products in the consumer mind.

With associates at Ted Bates, Reeves planned a campaign for Eisenhower based on 32 television commercials backed up by heavy use of radio.

Reeves' strategy was based on a political analysis composed by Michael Levin. Levin recommended heavy use of Eisenhower spots in 52 key counties of 12 key states--where a shift of two or three percentage points in the popular vote in the counties would swing them, and they in turn would swing the states and their critical electoral votes to Eisenhower. The electoral votes of the 12 key states--the Great Lakes girdle plus California--would be enough to assure an Eisenhower victory.

The TV and radio spots that Reeves concocted were based essentially on three themes--corruption in Washington, the high cost of living, and getting out of the war in Korea.

While Reeves and Citizens for Eisenhower were buying up spot time according to plan, a copy of Levin's analysis and Republican plans fell into the hands of Drew Pearson and Volunteers for Stevenson. The enemy Stevenson camp moved quickly to exploit the idea the Republicans were running a $1 million campaign to "sell Eisenhower like toothpaste." (Actual plans called for a $1½ million expenditure, but that was a minor point.)

The adverse publicity did not stop Reeves and Citizens for Eisenhower from proceeding according to plan. The campaign ran on TV and radio in 20-second and one-minute spot format from October 21 through November 3, 1952.

In the television spots, Reeves moved to counter what he regarded as bad telegenic handling of Eisenhower by BBD&O in the televised speeches. He made Eisenhower appear more vigorous and dynamic by removing his glasses, putting him in different clothes, changing lighting, and hiring a good make-up man.

Eisenhower's landslide victory makes it difficult to determine the impact the spot campaign might have had. The Bates agency did enough analysis to determine that Eisenhower had attained a proportionately larger share of votes in areas saturated with the spots. But elaborate analysis was stymied when the Republican National Committee cut off funds for research.

The 1952 campaign was also the occasion for what was perhaps the first television tour de force by a politician.

A few weeks into the campaign, Peter Edson, a Washington columnist for the Newspaper Enterprise Association, began to ask questions about a $20,000 supplementary salary that had been paid to Eisenhower's running mate, Richard Nixon, by a few California businessmen. Edson's NEA story was handled soberly, but a similar story by Leo Katcher of the New York Post ran under a more sensational headline, "Secret Nixon Fund: Secret Rich Men's Trust Fund Keeps Nixon in Style Far Beyond His Salary."[8] While an essentially Republican press in America initially played down the story, Democrats seized on the issue and editorial opposition gradually mounted.

As Eisenhower discussed dropping Nixon from the ticket with his advisers, Nixon on the advice of his own friends decided to plead his case on television, going directly to the American public. An hour before he was due to go on the air, Thomas Dewey called him to say Eisenhower's advisers had recommended that at the end of the telecast he announce his resignation from the ticket.

A few minutes later, Nixon made an impassioned appeal to the television audience. The funds from the businessmen had been used for legitimate expenses such as transportation, telephone charges and circulating speeches that his $12,500 salary did not cover, he said. The only gift he had ever accepted, he tearfully explained, was a cocker spaniel named Checkers whom his daughters dearly loved. Instead of announcing his resignation, he asked the audience to let Republican headquarters know their will.[9]

The speech revealed the dramatic impact television could have. The Republican National Committee received some 2,000,000 telegrams and letters bearing some 3,000,000 signatures. Most of the telegrams and letters demanded that Nixon remain on the ticket. Eisenhower decided to keep "My boy."[10]

Although Richard M. Nixon had used television adroitly in the Checkers speech, he was less adept in the first of the Great Debates of 1960 when he was running for the presidency against John F. Kennedy.

Marshall McLuhan has noted that a poll conducted after the first of the Great Debates indicated that the radio audience thought that Nixon had won, while the television audience had given Kennedy the edge of victory. The results of the poll drove home the importance of the candidate's image in television campaigning. While both the radio and television audience heard the same words, the television audience saw things the radio audience could not.

Today, kinesicists say that as much as 90% of the content of a message delivered face-to-face is nonverbal--facial displays, hand gestures, voice intonation, and so on. The candidate talking to people on television is similar to a person speaking to them face-to-face. Nixon in the first of the Great Debates was tired and it showed. In addition, the image orthicon camera used had a mild X-ray effect; it picked up facial hair slightly beneath Nixon's translucent skin, hair which would not have shown if he'd used proper make-up. Kennedy looked straight into the television camera, into the eyes of the audience; Nixon, in classical debate style, talked often to his opponent in the studio, looking away from the camera and therefore away from the eyes of the audience. Kennedy wore a suit that contrasted with the studio backdrop; Nixon did not, and gave something of the appearance of a floating head. Kennedy smiled now and again during the debate, a technique called for when using a cool medium; Nixon was more somber.

The 1968 presidential campaign is noteworthy not so much for original use of television as for Joe McGinniss's best-selling analysis of Nixon's use of television.

Many readers of The Selling of the President 1968 came away from the book with the mistaken impression that Richard M. Nixon had been sold to the American public like toothpaste through TV spots and a set of local, carefully controlled audience-participation longer programs.

The 1968 Republican spots for Nixon may have swayed some votes. But the historical evidence indicates their effectiveness was low. In the 1968 race, Nixon started out far ahead of the Democratic candidate, Hubert Humphrey, mainly because of the debacle at the Democratic National Convention in Chicago--barbed wire around the convention hall, what was later termed a "police riot" in the streets, Mayor Richard Daley's packing of the convention with his machine ward-heelers.

As the campaign progressed, however, alienated Democrats returned slowly to the party fold. At the peak of the Republican hype on TV, Nixon was losing votes, not gaining them as he should have been if the ads, which far outnumbered Humphrey's, were effective. It's been said that if the election had been held a few days later than it was, Humphrey, not Nixon, would have been the victor.

In 1972, Nixon campaign forces considerably altered television strategy from that used in 1968. Although television was used, radio became the President's main vehicle in his campaign effort. He made 13 half-hour broadcasts on radio during the daytime, and one evening half-hour paid speech. Texts of the radio speeches were widely distributed to the "out-country" press to generate additional coverage.[11]

The President of course received massive television news coverage as he went about his day-to-day duties. His 1972 visits to the People's Republic of China and to Russia generated particularly heavy and effective coverage.

On the paid television spot side, the November Group, headed by Peter Dailey, ended up spending only $4 million on paid television for Nixon, compared to a $6.2 million expenditure by opponent George McGovern.[12]

Perhaps the most widely seen spots in Nixon's 1972 bid for re-election were three spots aired with the signature of John Connally's "Democrats for Nixon" organization. One of these spots showed a hand wiping out half of the Navy, a third of the Army Divisions, and most of the Air Force--an allusion to McGovern's position on cutting defense spending. Another showed a hard-hat working on high steel, with a voice over critical of welfare spending. Another showed candidate McGovern's face revolving on a weathervane, a metaphorical allusion to his ever-changing positions.

Perhaps the most important political contests so far in 1974 have been the five special congressional elections leading into the November off-year elections. At the time this paper was written, four of the five special elections had been held, and the fifth was upcoming in Michigan 8.

Of the special elections that had been held, the one that perhaps attracted the most national comment pitted Republican Robert VanderLaan against Democrat Richard VanderVeen for Gerald Ford's vacated seat in Michigan. The Democratic victory based on a newspaper-radio-direct mail effort stressing Watergate and other issues has been widely interpreted as a bellwether for a Democratic landslide in November. That election--with an aside on a related election in Ohio--will be discussed at greater length shortly.

II. Fact and Fancy in Political Campaign Television

This section takes a cursory look at 17 issues involving the use of television in political campaigns.

Each issue is presented as a question, and the pro and con arguments of various authorities then presented.

No attempt to fully delineate the 17 issues is made. Any one of the issues could be the subject of a book or Ph.D. dissertation. Rather, the paper attempts to sketch in the major dimensions of each issue.

1. Is there a trend away from paid television in political campaigns toward use of television news and other communications media?

Although a number of observers of the television scene contend there is a trend away from the use of paid television in political campaigns, the evidence is far from clear, in large part due to the unreliability of data. The data is unreliable for a number of reasons--some candidates report expenditures before agency commissions, some after; some candidates include production costs, others do not, and so on.

Table 1 summarizes expenditures for television and radio time in general elections from 1960 through 1972.

TABLE 1

Expenditures for Political Broadcasts in General Elections, by Medium and Party, 1960 to 1972

Figures in thousands of dollars. Represents media charges before commissions and after discounts, except 1970 represents charges after commissions and discounts.

Medium and Party	1960	1964	1968	1970	1972
Television	$10,052	$17,496	$27,087	$21,633	$24,567
Republican	5,431	9,481	15,183	11,143	11,619
Democratic	4,415	7,715	10,424	9,335	11,433
Other	206	350	1,480	1,154	1,515
Radio	4,143	7,108	13,316	11,419	14,410
Republican	2,128	3,601	7,322	5,573	5,879
Democratic	1,790	3,298	5,024	5,049	6,954
Other	225	209	970	797	1,577

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States 1973 (94th ed.), U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington. Table is based on data from the Federal Communications Commission, Report of Political Broadcasting, April 1961, July 1965, August 1969, June, 1971, and unpublished data.

All data is for presidential election years except for the 1970 data. What the data seem to say is that spending on campaign television increased in general elections in presidential years from 1960 through 1968. There was a sharp decline in spending in 1970, a non-presidential year. Then spending rose again in 1972, a presidential year, but not to the point of expenditures in the 1968 general elections. That would seem to provide evidence for a trend away from the use of paid television in political campaigns.

It should be noted that figures for 1972 to some extent reflect the 1971 Federal Elections Campaign Act. This act not only limits how much a candidate can spend on his or her campaign, but also stipulates that only 60% of the total campaign expenditure can be for broadcasting.[13] Other legislation now pending in Congress and the states, or already passed, is likely to have an effect on broadcast spending.

While data for expenditures for television in general elections can be interpreted to indicate a slight trend downward in purchase of time, the same data indicate a slight upturn in expenditures on television in primaries. Table 2 summarizes expenditures for television and radio time in primary elections held in 1968, 1970, and 1972.

TABLE 2

Expenditures for Political Broadcasts in Primary Elections, by Medium and Party, 1968, 1970, 1972

Figures in thousands of dollars. Represents media charges before commissions and after discounts, except 1970 represents charges after commissions and discounts.

Medium and Party	1968	1970	1972
Television	$10,891	$10,254	$12,641
Republican	3,521	3,219	1,824
Democratic	6,960	6,780	10,145
Other	409	255	672
Radio	7,594	7,304	8,849
Republican	1,834	1,916	1,411
Democratic	5,457	4,929	6,750
Other	303	459	688

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States 1973 (94th ed.), U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, p. 384. Table is based on data from the Federal Communications Commission, Report of Political Broadcasting, August, 1969, June, 1971, and unpublished data.

If there is a trend away from expenditures for television, and that trend is not due to campaign financing laws but rather to a disenchantment with the effectiveness of paid television, the trend seems to have started during the 1972 presidential primaries. As the next issue discussion shows, the big spenders in the early New Hampshire, Florida and Wisconsin primaries got few votes. In later primaries, with an exception or two, the smart money began to shift away from television towards media that produced more results per dollar spent. Humphrey, the big winner in the Pennsylvania primary, spent only $3,800 on television. In Massachusetts, Humphrey and Wallace spent nothing on TV. McGovern put his emphasis on radio spots.

Following the Ohio primary, Roger Ailes, who played a major role in orchestrating Nixon's "man in the pit" regional TV specials in 1968, observed that voters in the 1972 primaries seemed to be depending less on TV spots, more on TV news and newspapers in making up their minds.[14]

Perhaps the two most important special elections for congressional office so far in 1974 have been (1) the race between Democrat Tom Luken and Republican Willis Gradison for the seat in Ohio's first district, and (2) the race between Democrat Richard VanderVeen and Republican Robert VanderLaan for Gerald Ford's vacated seat in Michigan. The two elections has a number of things in common, including:

- The Republican candidates were both defeated in districts that were essentially Republican.
- The Republicans in both cases outspent their opponents in the purchase of television time.

That takes us into the second question, which may hold the real reason why there is a trend away from television advertising if such a trend exists.

2. Does paid television exposure of a candidate win votes?

In a 1959 issue of Public Opinion Quarterly, Wilbur Schramm and Richard P. Carter raised some serious questions about the effectiveness of paid television in influencing voter decisions.

Their report was based on 593 telephone interviews conducted in the San Francisco area immediately after a political telethon sponsored by Sen. William Knowland in a bid for re-election. The telethon ran on one Bay Area channel from 10:40 p.m. October 31, 1958, to 7 p.m. the next day.

Schramm and Carter found that of the 593 persons interviewed, only 65 (11.5%) had watched any part of the telecast. While some of the 65 reported having their voting intentions reinforced, only three reported that seeing the telethon had helped them decide how to vote. Two reported having decided to vote for Knowland, and one decided to vote against him.[15]

The Schramm-Carter findings were overshadowed, however, by success stories such as the earlier 1952 use of television by Eisenhower-Nixon, and the effects of the Great Debates of 1960. Then came the 1968 campaign, the McGinnis book, and a flood of articles about the effectiveness of television in a number of magazines.

Walter De Vries, then an instructor at the University of Michigan at Dearborn, and a senior consultant to De Vries and Associates, injected a note of reality in 1970 that foreshadowed his influential book, The Ticket-Splitter, which would not be published for another two years.

DeVries found in a study of the Michigan electorate in the 1970 gubernational election that TV spots ranked 24th in order of importance in a list of factors influencing uncommitted voters. The most potent medium, he found in the study, was direct mail.[16]

De Vries also contended in 1970 that newspaper editorials and stories were more powerful persuaders than most politicians believed them to be. Within the television medium, he said, television documentaries, newscasts and specials on politics were the most important influencers of voter decisions.[17]

In 1972, De Vries published a highly influential small volume with V. Lance Tarrance, Jr., titled The Ticker-Splitter: A New Force in American Politics. The ticket-splitter, not to be confused with the independent voter, is the swing voter who can decide election outcomes. His information comes mostly from television, but not television advertising, particularly TV spots. Television news shows, documentary programs, and discussion shows were the influencers.[18]

The 1972 Democratic primaries drove home the ineffectiveness of television advertising.

In New Hampshire, the big spender on TV was the Committee for Wilbur Mills, which spent $80,000 or so for some 30- and 60-second spots, but especially to air a half-hour film, "The Congressman from Kensett." Mills got 4.1% of the vote. The next biggest spender was Sen. Muskie, who spent about $65,000 on television and emerged with the biggest percentage of the vote, 47.8%. Sen. McGovern spent about the same, and got 37.6% of the vote. Mayor Sam Yorty spent about $15,000 on TV, far less than Mills, but got 6.1% of the vote.[19]

Then came Florida. Mayor Lindsay, rumored to have spent about $170,000 on paid television, got 7% of the vote. Muskie spent about $150,000 to get 9%. George Wallace spent around $75,000, much of it on longer-format programming just before the election, and got 42%. Humphrey spent about the same as Wallace and got 18%.

In the Wisconsin primary, McGovern and Humphrey were the smallest spenders on TV, but they split the lion's share of the vote. Sens. Jackson and Muskie, the big spenders, were the big losers.

For all practical purposes, the Wisconsin primary signalled the end of Muskie's bid for the nomination. Robert Squier, a television adviser to Hubert Humphrey in 1968 and a veteran of 26 campaigns to that point, resigned as Muskie's TV adviser. Angry because he'd lost control of Muskie's TV strategy, Squier contended that because McGovern was running in Wisconsin on a strong anti-establishment theme that was winning votes, Muskie should not have based his television appeals on testimonials from five establishment senators.[22]

The main Democratic contenders, as they went into Pennsylvania, cut back their television expenditures. Humphrey, the big winner in that state, spent only $3,800 on TV as already noted. He relied essentially on "telephonathon" format.

By Pennsylvania, the lessons had been learned. There would still be states where primary candidates would spend heavily on TV advertising--but not with the faith that had existed in the period immediately following publication of the McGinniss book.

Is it likely that candidates in 1974 will look more suspiciously on paid television in their campaigns?

At the time this paper was written, four of the five special elections slated in America before the November elections had been held.

Of the four, pollsters seem to have written off two as unimportant as trend-setters--a race in Pennsylvania in which the candidates avoided the Watergate issue and John Murtha (the Democrat) emerged the victor by a few hundred votes, and a race in Southern California in which Republican Robert Lagomarsino garnered 52% of the popular vote running against seven Democrats trying to force a run-off. The other two elections, and one in particular, have been cited by political pundits as bellwethers. Use of television in these two campaigns is therefore worthy of particular mention.

The most-discussed election occurred in Michigan's Fifth Congressional District, and was for the vacated seat of Gerald Ford, who had been elevated to the Vice Presidency. The race pitted Democrat Richard F. VanderVeen, who had three times run for public office and lost, against Republican State Senator Robert VanderLaan, who had never lost an election.[23]

An early January poll showed VanderLaan leading VanderVeen in the Republican district 60% to 28%. Enter the hot young political campaign firm, Marttila, Payne, Kiley & Thorne of Boston. Result: an upset victory at the polls on February 18, with VanderVeen capturing 51% (53,008) of the popular vote to VanderLaan's 44% (46,159). Two independent candidates took the remainder of the vote.

Marttila, Payne, Kiley & Thorne designed an essentially issue-oriented, TV-less campaign for VanderVeen. Including VanderVeen, the firm has worked on 18 campaigns, 15 of them for winners. Their candidates have included Congressman Joseph Drinan, Boston Mayor Kevin White, Delaware Senator Joseph Biden, and New Jersey Governor Brendan Byrne.[24]

According to Dan Payne, 29-year-old advertising director for the firm, the agency excluded television from the campaign mix because when TV time was available in Grand Rapids for VanderVeen, he didn't have the money to buy it; by the time the candidate had the money, the time was no longer available. Ultimately, VanderVeen spent $65,000 on the campaign, about $40,000 of it on media.[25]

VanderVeen spent heavily on direct mail (250,000 pieces were mailed to lists prepared by the United Auto Workers, local blacks, and other ethnic groups likely to vote Democratic), and on radio spots and newspaper ads aimed at "negotiable" Republicans.[26]

The advertising hit heavily on the Watergate issue, soaring prices, and related matters. One radio spot, for example, featured an auto worker declaring he was paying more taxes than Nixon; another, used just before the election, featured a local Republican businessman announcing his decision to vote Democratic. One particularly effective newspaper ad was headlined "Our President must stand beyond a shadow of a doubt. Our President must be Gerald Ford." The newspaper ad appears to have identified VanderVeen more heavily with the popular Ford than VanderLaan had been identified.

According to Ron Hayes, now an aide to Congressman VanderVeen in Washington, VanderLaan was on television heavily during the campaign, using image-oriented rather than issue-oriented spots--the candidate in his kitchen writing checks, the candidate riding a bicycle, and so on.[27]

Marttila, Payne certainly deserve credit for running an effective campaign, engineering an upset that may foretell what will happen in November. But as so often happens in coverage of such election, little attention has been given to the reasons the loser lost. It would be an oversimplification to say that the heavily favored VanderLaan was a loser because he emphasized image rather than issues in his television advertising, or because he chose the wrong medium.

VanderLaan's campagin was handled by Insight, Inc., an agency in Grand Rapids and Kansas City. VanderLaan was the agency's first loser. While the Grand Rapids Press contended VanderLaan's forces spent $73,000 on his campaign, the agency had considerably less than this to spend.

While the VanderLaan use of television may have played a role in his defeat, most of the following factors appear also to have had an influence:

- The VanderLaan polls insisted on spending over $3,000 on billboards despite surveys indicating 90% name recognition by voters in the area.
- Only $4,920 was spent on TV by VanderLaan, more than $3,000 less than the agency recommendation.
- Newspaper buys had to be cut back because of a shortage of funds; the shortage of funds was perhaps due in part to a drying up of Republican contributions brought on by Watergate backlash.
- VanderLaan chose to run on his own name, rejecting Gerald Ford's offer of the use of his name and active support.
- A "little Watergate" occurred shortly before election day. A minor township official had forged the name of two prominent Democrats on a letter endorsing the Republican VanderLaan. Although only a few hundred of the letters were mailed, local news media covered the "dirty trick" heavily.
- A letter that got much wider circulation was sent to voters thanking them for having voted for VanderLaan in the primary. Although the letter was intended as a general thank-you, many voters appear to have interpreted it to mean that somehow the VanderLaan forces had found out who they had voted for in the primary--that the secrecy of the voting booth had somehow been violated.
- The VanderLaan campaign went out with a whimper instead of a bang--that is, it seems to have peaked too early, if such a phenomenon as peaking exists.
- The Republican grass-roots machinery appears to have grown rusty during the Ford years, when it wasn't really needed (Ford never polled less than 60% of the vote in general elections), and was not up to the task of drumming up support for VanderLaan.

- Republican forces, perhaps misled by early polls showing VanderLaan strongly in the lead, didn't make an all-out effort to get voters to the polls.[28]

The other bellwether election occurred in Ohio's First Congressional District, which anchors on Cincinnati. The general election, held March 6, a few weeks after Michigan 5, pitted two former Cincinnati mayors against each other.

Although the district is essentially Republican, Democrat Tom Luken pulled off another major upset, defeating Republican Willis Gradison 52% (55,134) to 48% (51,063). Learning from Michigan 5, Luken hammered on the same issues as had VanderVeen in Michigan.

Luken's advertising was handled by Leonard M. Sive & Associates of Cincinnati, while Gradison was handled essentially by Nolan, Keelor & Stites of the same city.

The candidates in Ohio 1 both spent heavily on television, although the loser spent more total dollars on TV than the winner. Table 3 lists expenditures by the two candidates for television, radio and newspaper only.

TABLE 3

Expenditures for Radio and Television Time and Newspaper Space
in Ohio's First Congressional District
Special Election of March 6, 1974

	Luken (D)	Gradison (R)
Television	$19,464 (65%)	$22,210 (61%)
Radio	5,491 (18%)	6,154 (17%)
Newspaper	5,025 (17%)	7,868 (22%)
	$29,980 (100%)	$36,232 (100%)

In the general election, Luken spent another $15,450 for production costs. Gradison's production costs are uncertain.

Source: Luken figures are in letter to author from Dick Theis, account executive, Leonard M. Sive and Associates Advertising, Cincinnati, April 5, 1974. Gradison figures are from telephone call by author to Jim Hogan, account executive, Nolan, Keelor & Stites, Cincinnati, April 8, 1974.

The examples in this section all tend to show that expenditures on paid television do not correlate with votes received. But the examples have been selected to drive home that point.

Numerous examples can be found where the big television spender was also the big winner. Lyndon Johnson outspent Barry Goldwater on paid television in 1964, for example, and ran up the biggest landslide in American history.

There is need for a systematic study of television expenditures and votes obtained. Such scientific analysis will have to wait, however, until absolutely reliable data on exactly how much a candidate did spend on television are available. Such data is available, but it will take a monumental amount of digging to get it.

3. Is television the main source of information for voters? Is it more believable than radio, newspapers, magazines and other media?

Studies indicate that, with the possible exception of direct mail, more people rely on television for news than on any other single medium. The studies also indicate that television news is more believable than news in the other major media.

Evidence on the effective reach and believability of television advertising, on the other hand, is at best fuzzy.

Although arguments can be made for and against television both as a news and advertising medium, current thinking seems to be that both television news and advertising should be part of the candidate's campaign mix, along with use of all the other media and grassroots personal contact. There does seem to be a trend, however, toward more emphasis on getting television news coverage for the candidate, which means any television advertising campaign must be backed up by a savvy public relations operation. As Neil Hickey puts it, "make news, not commercials." *Time* magazine is more adamant, admonishing "Out, out, damned spot."[28a]

On the subject of television news as a source of information, the most recent Roper data for the Television Information Office shows newspapers trailing TV as the source of most news by a 50 to 64% margin.[28b]

Further evidence of the reach of TV news was provided in late 1973 when CBS commissioned the Opinion Research Corporation to conduct a survey following an October 26 blast at CBS News by Richard Nixon in a press conference. ORC asked respondents "Which one of the following sources of news do you rely upon the most to keep you informed about news events? Do you rely most on magazines, or newspapers, or radio, or television?" The answers: television, 56%, newspapers, 32%, radio, 10%, magazines, 4%, no opinion, 2%.[28c]

The one mass medium that may possibly be more effective as a source of information than television is direct mail. The De Vries findings of 1970 on this subject have already been mentioned.

A more recent survey, nonpolitical in nature, provides further evidence. A 1973 poll of almost 2,000 Chesapeake & Potomac Telephone customers in the Washington area found that leaflets with the telephone bill were the single most-mentioned source of information about the telephone company. Television was the next biggest mass media source of information, trailing leaflets by a 51 to 65% margin.[28d] If all the various word-of-mouth categories in the C&P data are added up, however, they outrank both direct mail and television. The public relations message is clear: grassroots face-to-face contact is more important than mass media. That should not be interpreted to mean the mass media should be ignored; the savvy persuader will use all available mass media, paid and unpaid, to back up grassroots personal communication.

Studies indicate that in addition to being the biggest source of news from among the major media, television news is believed more than news in other media. The continuing Roper study for the Television Information Office makes this clear. The Roper data has been validated by a number of other independent polling agencies. In June, 1970, for example, H. R. Bruskin & Associates found that 46% of 2,506 adults interviewed rated TV as the most believable medium. That compared to 26% giving the same rating to newspapers, 11% for magazines, and 8% for radio.[28e] Because the Bruskin study did not attempt to differentiate television advertising from news, it could be interpreted to mean that TV advertising, as well as TV news, may be more believable.

Perhaps the most important point to keep in mind about the believability of both TV news and TV advertising is that people may believe one story, and not believe another; they may believe one ad, but be cynical about another, despite the bromide that "seeing is believing."

A classic experiment bearing out the above warning was conducted in 1958 by Pat Cranston. He started by asking 1,500 residents of Seattle if they believed advertising statements made on radio and television about products most of the time, some of the time, or seldom. Using a scale of 1 to 3 points, he got a mean average score of 2.108, indicating a rather high degree of subject acceptance of advertising statements.

He then went on, however, to ask the respondents to rate 15 ads that were appearing at the time on radio and television in the Seattle market. The credulity scores for the 15 ads ranged from a high of 2.838 for statements made in an ad describing a cosmetic sale to a low mean of 1.256 for a local automobile dealer's ad.[28f]

It's likely that a similar study of television spot ads and television news would produce similar results. With the current American cynicism about politics, ads and news about politicians would probably score somewhere below the used car ads.

Still, wisdom argues that televisions's high credibility rating can be an asset to politicians. If spots are used, the campaign manager can benefit by striving especially to place the ads during news programs, where they can benefit by association with the high credibility given to television news.

4. Has television drastically altered the conduct of political campaigns?

Considerable controversy still surrounds the question of whether or not television has forever altered the conduct of political campaigns in America.

At one end of the extreme stand men like broadcasting authority Sydney Head, author of *Broadcasting in America*, who argues that television--or at least, television advertising--has little or no direct impact on elections. Harking back to the classic Lazarsfeld, Berelson and Gaudet voting study done in Erie County, Ohio, Head says:

> A very careful study of the effects of various avenues of political persuasion in a particular community and a particular election led to the conclusion that the mass media did relatively little to shift votes from one party to another.[29]

At the other extreme are people such as vintage-1970 Roger Ailes and psephologist Dan Nimmo, author of the popular The Political Persuaders.

As Ailes put it in 1970, before his agency had acquired a few losers in heavy TV campaigns,

> I don't believe anyone will ever be elected to a major public office again, including mayors of big cities, without the skillful use of television.[30]

Dan Nimmo takes a more moderate stand when he says:

> Despite the increasingly imaginative use of direct mail, image-advertising in newspapers, radio publicity, recorded messages, and telephone blitzes, it is television that distinguishes modern campaign communications from that prior to the invasion of the professional campaigners.[31]

Television of course cannot be ignored in any political campaign where television signals reach the electorate. That is obvious to anyone with common sense.

5. When campaigning on TV, which is more important--image or discussion of issues? Can a candidate be "merchandised" purely on image?

The mainstream of thought among political campaign professionals today seems to be that while image is important in campaign television, pure image sell is becoming increasingly less effective in winning votes.

While the term "image" was being used long before the Great Debates of 1960, and image sell was used in Eisenhower's victory in 1952, the real stress on image seems to have occurred as a result of Kennedy's victory in the first of the Great Debates.

By the third of the Great Debates, the term "image" had entered the popular American vocabulary. Eugene Burdick recounts watching the third debate in the home of Mrs. Hannah Nixon, Richard M. Nixon's mother. A group of Mrs. Nixon's friends were present. After the telecast, Burdick reports:

> One of the ladies stood up to cut a rhubarb pie. Another turned to me and began to talk, repeatedly using the magic word 'image.' It was clear that she, like the rest of the world, thought it was more important than issues.[32]

Marshall McLuhan's analysis of the importance of image when using television has already been noted. The analysis of another scholar who played a major role in popularizing the term, Daniel Boorstin, is also worth noting:

> Here, in the United States, the making of images is everyday business. The image has reached out from commerce to the worlds of education and politics, and into every corner of our daily lives. Our churches, our charities, our schools, our universities, all now seek favorable images. Their way of saying they want people to think well of them is to say they want people to have favorable images of them.[33]

While John F. Kennedy may have emerged the victor in the first of the televised Great Debates in part because he presented a better non-verbal image than Nixon, it must be remembered that Kennedy did not simply stand in front of the TV camera and look handsome. He carefully rehersed answers to questions his aides thought might come up, and on camera, intelligently discussed issues. Had he avoided the issues, it is doubtful that his appearance alone would have swayed many votes.

As early as 1970, Roger Ailes was saying that both "illumination of the issues" and "an emotional sell of the man" are important in television campaigning.[34]

According to TV spot producer Robert Goodman, who handled the 1968 Ohio senatorial campaign of Republican Robert Taft, issues must take precedence over image, although image cannot be ignored. In promoting a product, he contends, "little slogans" and "little formulas that are deceptive" are the stock in trade of merchandisers. But with politicians, "it's a little more honest," although he acknowledges that "we are trying to show what's good, and we are trying to conceal what is not so good, we are trying to dramatize the things we think will sell."[35]

Although the trend is difficult to document, the classic image spots--for example, the romantic film depicting a ruggedly masculine candidate strolling down a deserted beach, jacket slung over shoulder, fading into the sunset as he holds his wife's hand--appear to be running less frequently than Guggenheim-format spots in which candidates discuss issues with small groups of voters.

The image spot has not totally disappeared, of course, and is not likely to disappear in the future, particularly is a candidate is telegenic. Dan Nimmo warns:

> Politicians employ numerous techniques to adjust to the demands of video campaigning. These techniques are usually based on an appeal to the tastes, rather than the convictions of Americans, for television advisers are convinced that personalities and not issue stands or political parties win votes. The overall ploy is contrived spontaneity, the effort to appear uninhibited, candid, open and credible without running the risk of an unrehearsed performance.[36]

The candidate ready to put all his stress on an image campaign going into the 1974 November elections, however, might take a lesson from the bellwethers already discussed. Issues--especially Watergate, inflation, taxes and unemployment--were central to the Democratic upset victories.

As this paper was written, the fifth and final special election was slated for the Saginaw-Bad Axe, Michigan area April 16. Another upset appeared likely. Democratic contender J. Robert Traxler was hammering at four main issues: (1) high unemployment in the district (20%), (2) the energy crisis, real or contrived; (3) inflation; and (4) Watergate and related issues.[37] Key Republicans, including President Nixon himself, were working in the district to save the election, and a last-minute radio commercial blitz by both parties appeared likely.

Richard Scammon, co-author with Ben Wattenberg of The Real Majority,[38] one of perhaps the four most influential books published in recent years on psephology, contended on a recent NBC-TV news special that the 1974 elections would hinge on issues.

According to classical Scammon & Wattenberg theory, 70% of the electorate, the "real majority," is unpoor, unyoung, and unblack. One reaches that majority through two sets of issues, the "welfare issue" (advocate a classic New Deal position on Social Security, Medicare, Medicaid, and related matters) and the "social issue" (avoid the causes of the youth revolution generally, although there may be exceptions). Exactly how the Scammon and Wattenberg philosophy applies to the issues emerging as the key issues in 1974 remains for their explanation.

What does appear likely is that Democrats in November will run heavily on issues, and if the Republicans fall back on pure image appeals, they're likely to be decimated at the polls unless the political climate changes between now and November. House Majority Leader Thomas P. "Tip" O'Neill says the Democratic Party currently expects to gain between 35 and 56 seats in November. A gain of 43 seats would give the Democrats a veto-proof Congress--if the Democrats vote as a solid block, which is unlikely.[39]

Before leaving the subject of image versus issue appeals, it would perhaps be wise to comment briefly on the widely held belief that women are more likely to be image voters, men more likely to be issue voters. Some evidence does seem to indicate that women are more likely than men to be influenced by image. But one must remember that the majority of candidates for public office are men. If a number of attractive women such as Raquel Welch were running for office, it is quite likely that men would be more influenced by image than by issues.

6. Given a choice between a political program and an entertainment show on television, will the voters in a democracy exercise their civic responsibility and select the political program?

Hell no!

Democracy is an imperfect instrument at best, and the humans who make up a democracy are imperfect as well. Given a leisure-time choice between play (watching an entertainment show) and work (watching a political program), citizens for the most part are going to opt for Gunsmoke.

Any number of examples can be presented to illustrate.

For example, on Tuesday evening, November 3, 1970, citizens in the New York City area who wanted to watch one of the network stations had an option between 7:30 and 8:30 p.m. of watching election coverage on either NBC or CBS, or to watch Mod Squad on ABC. Mod Squad earned a 23.2 Nielsen, out-pulling election coverage on CBS (13.6) and NBC (7.6) combined.[40]

Another example: viewership of the Democratic and Republican national conventions in 1972. Viewership of the conventions was off considerably from 1968. For the average minute of the Democratic National Convention telecast, according to A. C. Nielsen, less than 20% of American TV homes were tuned in. The Opinion Research Corporation determined that 65% of the American citizenry either ignored the Democratic show entirely in 1972, or watched four hours or less of it.

Viewership of the Republican National Convention in 1972, where the nomination of Richard M. Nixon was a foregone conclusion, was even lower. According to ORC, 74% of the American public either watched none of the Republican convention, or less than four hours of it.[41]

7. What is the ideal length for a paid political spot on TV?

One of the most controversial topics in TV campaigning rages over the ideal length for a candidate's paid time. Should he concentrate on 10-, 20-, or 30-second spots? Are one-minute spots better? Is a 5-minute trailer more effective because there's more time for a candidate to adequately develop issues? Are paid half-hour, one-hour or longer blocks the best buy?

Jack Bowen of Bailey Deardourff, Bowen argues against spots, claiming the most effective format is "the development of half-hour programs that are good, entertaining and informational." These longer paid broadcasts "should not just be on the man and his personality, but should focus on issues," he contends.[42]

Charles Guggenheim of Guggenheim Productions, one of the major agencies handling Democratic candidates, seemed to be in agreement with Bowen when he said after the 1970 elections that "to restrict a man to 60 seconds is unfair. We have to go to longer programs. The spots are getting tiresome and superficial."[43]

Among the national politicians who have spoken out against one minute and shorter spots are U. S. Rep. John B. Anderson (R.-Ill.), Sen. Vance Hartke (D-Ind.), and Sen. Robert J. Dole (R.-Kan.).

Anderson told the American Advertising Federation in Washington in 1971 that he was convinced that 10-, 20-, and 30-second spots did not elucidate the issues in campaigns.[44]

Senator Dole, a recent chairman of the Republican National Committee, advocates limitation of candidates to 5-minute, 10-minute or 15-minute programs.[45]

Not too long ago Newton Minow, former chairman of the Federal Communications Commission, filed a petition with the FCC on behalf of Foote, Cone & Belding which, if it had been approved, would have required all campaign spots to be at least five minutes long.[46]

Finally, John Gardner's Common Cause a few years ago asked the National Association of Broadcasters to ban all paid political advertising from the airwaves.

There is, of course, another side to the controversy.

Perhaps the major objection to eliminating shorter paid spots in favor of longer formats is that the longer a political telecast gets, the greater becomes the likelihood of audience tune-out.

There are other problems as well. To eliminate shorter political formats would be an abridgement of free speech. Further, the politician who pre-empts a popular entertainment show for a paid telecast of a half-hour or longer risks audience wrath; Adlai Stevenson learned that lesson when he pre-empted I Love Lucy for a paid speech. The national candidate who pre-empts a network entertainment show faces staggering costs in addition to audience wrath; he often must pay not only for the advertising minutes he pre-empts, but also the production costs of his own show and the production costs of the entertainment show pre-empted.

There are still other arguments that can be made positively in favor of the shorter spots.

Former NAB President Vincent Wasilewski, in replying to the Common Cause request for elimination of paid political broadcasting, contended that adequate communication could take place in a 60-second spot.[47]

Campaign professional Joseph Napolitan goes further, contending that many important political messages can be covered in 20 seconds. In favor of Napolitan, one can think back to the Rosser Reeves spots for Eisenhower, and ask rhetorically, just how long *should* it have taken Ike to say "If elected, I'll get us out of Korea."

On the practical side, Napolitan argues that while a few TV stations turn down ads shorter than five minutes in length, far more TV stations turn down spots *longer* than 60 seconds because the longer ads encourage audience tune-out.

Finally, it should be noted that there is a rather widespread belief among political pros that 30-second spots are more effective than 60-second spots in political campaigns.

The preference for 30s over 60s in political campaigns probably stems from the lore of product advertising, where advertising agencies commonly introduce a new theme in 60-second spots, but then revert to 30s that are extracted from the longer 60s.

According to Eugene Pomerance of Foote, Cone & Belding, the relative-effectiveness score of a 30-vs. 60-second spot depends on the kind of test used to determine the score.

Foote, Cone reported in 1970 the results of a study of 500 sets of 30- and 60-second spots. The agency concluded:

- Product sales are the most valid of all measures in determining the relative-effectiveness scores of ads.
- Measures of persuasion, attitude change or preference change were the next most effective measure.
- Communication or recall was less effective as a measure.
- Expressions of interest made by a captive audience were the least effective measure.[48]

It is dangerous to generalize from a study of product ads to the effectiveness of political spots. But if the Foote, Cone findings could be applied to politics, they would seem to suggest that 30-second political spots may be more effective than 60s in promoting name recall of a candidate, but that the longer 60s would be more effective in getting people to vote for ("buy") a candidate.

Finally, it is perhaps worth noting that while the longer the political format, the more likely the tune-out, longer formats may appeal more to what public relations people are fond of calling "opinion leaders." A small audience of opinion leaders can be important. These opinion leaders, once informed, can play a key role in stimulating grassroots discussion of the candidate and his issue stance.

8. Is network political reporting biased against Republicans in favor of Democratic candidates?

Although Richard M. Nixon has long charged that reporters of all types, including television, report him unfairly, the source of perhaps the most serious charges of network TV news bias is Edith Efron's popular The News Twisters.

Miss Efron taped all network evening newscasts during the last seven weeks before the 1968 presidential election. She assigned "favorable" and "unfavorable" labels to words and phrases, and then reported in her book that there was a serious bias in network coverage against Nixon and in favor of Humphrey.

CBS News and other critics heatedly attacked the study, charging it was conservatively biased and methodologically unsound. More recently, Stevenson, Eisinger, Feinberg and Kotok retraced Efron's steps in her research on CBS News, recoding her original analyses. In recoding just the CBS portion of the study, they uncovered a host of amateurish methodological errors. More important, they were unable to document any systematic bias in coverage of the three candidates (Nixon, Humphrey, Wallace) by CBS News other than that Humphrey got about three minutes a week more coverage on the CBS evening News than Nixon, and about four minutes a week more total coverage than Wallace.[49]

While the Stevenson et al. replication of Efron rather thoroughly exonerates CBS from the Efron charges, it is no closely kept secret that Richard M. Nixon and Dan Rather, who covers the White House for CBS, are adversaries.[50] In Rather's defense, William L. Rivers and a host of other media critics would point out that newsmen and government officials should be adversaries rather than bedfellows in a democracy. And as David Halberstam points out, the relationship between Washington newsmen and newsmakers is all too often the bedfellow role, glossed over with the appearance of an adversary relationship.[51]

As ABC News executive Av Westin said in a recent speech, there will always be liberals who claim TV news is biased in favor of conservatives and vice versa. At present, the two media-bias camps are about equal in number, indicating the networks are hitting a happy medium.[52]

Since the Efron book was published, a number of studies looking for network news bias using a variety of techniques have been completed.

Perhaps the most notable was a 1972 poll conducted for TV Guide by the Opinion Research Corporation. The poll of 1,002 respondents was taken from August 26 to September 7, after network coverage of the Republican and Democratic conventions, but before the final political run for the wire was fully geared up.

One of the questions ORC asked was "Which one of these media do you think is the fairest and most objective in its reporting and coverage?" The answers: TV, 53%; newspapers, 15%, magazines, 8%, radio, 17%, no opinion, 17%.

The ORC study is a continuing one; results don't fluctuate greatly. The data indicates that by and large the public finds TV news less biased than other news.

On the question of objectivity by network, ORC found that 40% of the public in the fall of 1972 saw no difference by network in objectivity, and 11% had no opinion. Of those who were left who felt there was a difference, 19% thought CBS was the most objective network, 13% thought NBC was most objective, 12% thought ABC most objective, and 5% thought PBS was most objective.[53] It's interesting to note that CBS,the network which has taken the most flak for not being objective, comes off as most objective in the public mind.

9. Is "below the belt" advertising on television effective?

Many national and statewide and some local elections generate television campaign spots that cause the opposition to yell "foul" or generate numerous complaints to the Unfair Campaign Practices Committee.

In the 1964 presidential election, for example, the Democratic National Committee aired the now famous--or infamous--"Daisy" and "Strontium-90" commericals. The "Daisy" commercial showed a small girl picking petals from a daisy; suddenly the TV screen was lit by a nuclear explosion. The "Strontium-90" spot talked about the dangers of milk contamination because of nuclear fallout. Both spots were aimed at unfortunate statements made by candidate Barry Goldwater that, if elected, he would resume nuclear testing and maintain America's hydrogen strike power.[54]

In the 1968 presidential campaign, the Republican National Committee aired a spot in which scenes of the war in Vietnam and race riots were interspersed with views of Hubert Humphrey smiling and laughing.[55]

While spots such as those just mentioned may have the effect of titillating the electorate--of making people watch to see "what those guys are going to do next," and of stimulating conversation and editorial coverage--the net effect of the unfair spots seems to be negative.

NBC-TV, for example, received thousands of phone calls from unhappy viewers after the "Daisy" spot was aired. Perhaps millions of viewers were irritated but did not take the effort to call and complain.

Nimmo contends that while evidence is sparse, research of voter reactions to violations of campaign ethics indicates that when voters detect such violations, they react against the violator. He cites an example from the 1968 elections in which Nixon carried a congressional district heavily, but the Republican candidate in the district lost. Voters had reacted negatively to what they described as the candidate's "mud-slinging"--especially his charges that his rival was pro-communist, wanted to register guns instead of communists, and wished to finance student rioters.[56]

Similar examples abound. Recently in Atlanta, white incumbent Sam Mizell, running against a black man, Maynard Jackson, injected the race issue into the mayoral campaign. Atlanta became the first major Southern city with a black mayor.

In the 1970 elections, the TV spots of incumbent Republican Sen. Ralph T. Smith of Illinois and of aspirant Laurence Burton in Utah were singled out as particularly "dirty" and "vicious" by candidates in other states. Both Smith and Burton were defeated.[57]

Robert Squier, president of the Communications Co. of Washington (five winners and three losers in 1970) predicted rather idealistically after the 1970 elections that "responsibility" would be the byword of the future for candidates and TV media specialists. The events of 1972 would prove his forecast rather premature.

10. Does television provide greater exposure for political messages than other media?

The television audience is potent. That cannot be denied.

During the prime-time evening hours, more than 50,000,000 Americans are transfixed before the glowing phosphor screens in their livingrooms. The TV set in the average American household is on about six hours a day. Although there are small differences in the amount of time spent viewing television by sex, education, income and age, the differences are not great.

As a news medium, television appears to have surpassed the popularity of the daily newspaper. According to results of an Opinion Research Corp. survey commissioned by CBS-TV and reported in the November 26, 1973 issue of Broadcasting magazine, 56% of the members of a sample public said television was their main source of news, compared to 32% mentioning newspapers, 10% saying radio, 4% citing magazines, and 2% not answering.[58] As already noted, the most recent of the continuing studies of television news conducted by the Roper Organization for the Television Information Office shows television news ahead of newspaper news by a 64% to 50% margin.[59]

But despite the potency of the medium, neither television news nor television advertising are all-powerful.

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On the news side, television reports only a fraction of the information on political campaigns that newspapers report. Except in the case of presidential campaigns, television is not a depth medium. And in the presidential campaigns, when television covers an entire political convention, it covers more than the average voter wants to know; the newspaper comes out on top by providing concise summaries.

Further, television news tends to focus on the emotional and trivial aspects of campaigns, some voters content. The microphone that fails to function or the rostrum that topples from the stage becomes more important than key issue statements.

Even when the candidate effectively obtains television news coverage, the coverage does not guarantee election.

In the 1972 Presidential election, McGovern strategist Frank Mankiewicz stressed that his candidate's main strategy was public appearances, so that TV newsmen would be obliged to report on the candidate. The McGovern forces and the candidate himself were readily available to television newsmen. Of course, the candidate was defeated by the second-greatest margin in American political history. But one would be foolish to conclude that McGovern was defeated because of his strategy to make news by stressing issues. He was defeated because his stands on the issues did not sit well with the American voter.

On the advertising side, despite large TV audiences, the message may not necessarily get better attention than in other media.

Although definitely having an ax to grind, the Starch/Hooper service of Daniel Starch and Staff was seriously questioning the potency of TV advertising in 1970. According to a study by Starch/Hooper, "the message does not necessarily start out ahead in any medium." The study reported that voters of the average TV commercial declined from about 40-44% of the men and 40-42% of the women in 1960 to 25-27% of the men and 20-22% of the women in 1960. This, according to Starch/Hooper, puts television, newspapers, magazine and outdoor advertising on roughly similar footing.[60]

11. Can television coverage influence voter turnout?

A number of political observers hold that television stimulates high voter turnouts by stimulating interest among the less-educated masses, who vote less often than the well-educated. Yet Marttila, Payne, in their handling of VanderVeen in Michigan 5, were most afraid that a high-profile TV campaign would draw out the affluent Republican vote.

Evidence in support of either view is at best confused.

Dr. William A. Glaser of the Bureau of Applied Social Research at Columbia sums up the problem:

> ...perhaps a more accurate statement is that newspaper reading and television watching are associated with partly different modes of life with different political patterns. When practiced jointly, newspaper reading and television watching are associated with very high rates of turnout, but television may "add" less to the combination than

> newspapers. The association between users and non-users: extra hours do not steadily increase voting probabilities. Radio listening has become independent of turnout. Perhaps television is more effective in stimulating increases in the voting of less politically involved people, but the data are uneven and the same differential effect (if any) may be true of newspaper reading....[61]

12. Are TV editorials endorsing candidates of any great value?

They probably would be if the stations had the courage to make them, but the FCC's equal time provision scares off most stations.

For a number of years, critics cynical of newspaper endorsements of political candidates have been pointing out that although an essentially Republican press was overwhelmingly opposed to them editorially, candidates Franklin D. Roosevelt, Harry S. Truman, and John F. Kennedy managed to bring home the presidential bacon.

Taking a more scholarly look at newspaper endorsements recently, Professor John Robinson in a Journalism Quarterly article concluded that a newspaper endorsement of a candidate in a local election is worth about 6 percentage points in the popular vote--enough to mean the margin of victory in close races.

How many percentage points a television station's endorsement might be worth will have to wait until TV stations begin making endorsements.

According to Fred Friendly in Due to Circumstances Beyond Our Control, local TV stations seldom endorse political candidates, and the networks never endorse them--at least not openly. He points out that over half the radio and television stations in the country currently air editorials. But of the editorials that are aired, 70% deal with local issues exclusive of political endorsements, and the remainder with state, national and international issues. Most often the local editorials support "God, mother and the flag" subjects.[62]

The nation's broadcasters appear to be in keeping with public sentiment. A study of public acceptance of broadcast editorials indicates that two out of three people favor editorials on the air--but two out of three also oppose endorsement of political candidates by the broadcast media.

13. Are fear appeals on television helpful in winning votes?

The "fear appeal" research tradition started with an experiment aimed at getting school children to practice dental hygiene. A strong fear appeal (gory film of dental diseases) had less effect than mild or no fear appears.[63]

The widely reported results of that first experiment threw off many authorities. But gradually, other experiments were conducted. According to Karlins and Abelson, who have published a handy guide to research in persuasion theory, the net effect of later experiemtns (nonpolitical in nature) was that sometimes a mild fear appeal works best, sometimes a strong fear appeal is more effective.[64]

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Many political counseling firms feel fear appeals are effective in campaigns.

The fear appeal, for example, is an important part of the fourfold strategy, recommended by Baus and Ross for bond referenda campaigns. The steps the agency recommends include:

(1) Convincing voters that the bonds are self-liquidating, and that whatever is built will eventually pay for itself.
(2) Winning the support of homeowners by demonstrating that the improvements will increase property values.
(3) Creating the impression that unless the issue passes, additional taxes may have to levied to pay for the project, and
(4) Tastefully frightening voters into believing that failure of the bond issues would be disastrous--that failure to build new sewers, for example, will spread disease.[65]

The Whitaker and Baxter agency of California, which has one of the best track records in the country on political campaigns, has been highly successful in using fear appeals since 1934. The fear appeal is coupled, of course, with other solid techniques such as organizing interest groups in favor of the candidate or referendum for which the agency is working.

While the evidence seems to indicate that mild fear appeals can be effective in political campaigns, it should be noted that such fear appeals can backfire, especially if the electorate doesn't really see a danger it is told exists.

Perhaps one of the best examples of backfire occurred in the Wisconsin gubernatorial race of 1970 which pitted former Lt. Governor Jack Olson against Democratic party chief and former Lt. Governor Patrick Lucey. Roger Ailes Associates handled the television campaign of Olson; Guggenheim Associates, who had handled Hubert Humphrey in 1968, produced Lucey's spots.

Olson based his television spots heavily on fear appeals. In one spot, he was shown looking at the ruins of the Army Mathematics Research Center at the University of Wisconsin, destroyed by a truckload of explosives. An innocent physicist was killed in the blast, allegedly engineered by three anit-war youths. Feelings about the bombing ran high in Wisconsin at the time. The implication of the spot was that Olson, if elected, would stop rampant anarchy at the university.

In another of Olson's TV spots, people were shown lined up to collect unemployment checks. The spot implied that unless Olson was elected, his Democratic opponent would raise industrial taxes, driving business out of Wisconsin, and thus creating widespread unemployment.

Olson was badly defeated, receiving only 45% of the popular vote in a state where Republicans normally balance Democrats evenly.

The voters of the state, perhaps somewhat affected by the law-and-order fear appeal, did elect a Republican attorney general in the same election.

14. Is it important that TV spots be entertaining?

Generally speaking, people watch TV to be entertained. Most morning, afternoon and prime-time TV is designed to entertain, be the entertainment ever so vapid on occasion. Even in television news and informative programming, where the main goal is not entertainment, there is an element of show business.

A number of authorities, including Marshall McLuhan, contend that the politician on TV becomes a pseudo-Johnny Carson or Dick Cavett. As Joe McGinniss sums it up, referring to the 1968 presidential campaign:

> He (the performer) is brought into the living room. He is a guest. It is improper for him to shout. Humphrey vomited on the rug.[66]

One of the TV spots produced by Rosser Reeves for Eisenhower in 1952 was entertaining in that it was a form of one-minute playlet on the Korean War issue.

However, it was not until the 1960s, according to Dan Nimmo, that entertaining political spots became common in the United States. Spot advertising in political campaigns of the 1950s had for the most part depicted candidates in informal poses. There was little effort to create spots designed to persuade through shock, titillation, or humor.[67]

In the 1960s, spots such as the "Daisy," "Strontium-90" and "Laughing Hubert" already mentioned became more common. So did other spots designed to stimulate emotion, which is the basis of entertainment.

The five-minute trailer, so called because it is scheduled at the end of a regular TV program, also entered the scene in the 1960s. Nimmo dates the first trailer to 1960, when Gene Wyckoff produced one to give Nixon's running mate, Henry Cabot Lodge, a "heroic" image.[68]

Longer political documentaries, according to Nimmo, must also have elements of entertainment. He contends that to be successful, a political documentary must (1) have a symbolic scene representing the film's basic theme, (2) give voters the impression the candidate can control situations, without actually showing the candidate doing so, (3) maximize visual effects; sound tracks should be fitted to the best images after the images have been captured, and (4) employ striking musical backgrounds.[69]

The daily fare of television news, Nimmo points out, is not probing, hard-hitting, issue-oriented campaign coverage of pseudo-events:

> The values of television journalism are those of show business, not of candid, probing, or informative reporting, the pseudo event delivered on a platter is frequently the pap the television news department seeks, particularly if the event is amusing, visually arresting, or conveys a sense of human experience.[70]

Certainly, some of what Nimmo is saying is true. When a major network spends more time on the evening news covering a sign falling down behind a presidential candidate and his lecturn falling off the stage than it does to what the candidate says, it is attending to trivia. At the same time, network newscasters like Walter Cronkite, Dan Rather, Howard K. Smith, Chet Huntley, Frank Reynolds, Roger Mudd and a number of others have brilliantly covered the key issues in political campaigns. The same cannot be said as often of local TV stations covering local campaigns.

If the main intent of network news is to entertain--and the author is not convinced that Nimmo's criticism is entirely justified--then certainly, if TV spots are to hold an audience, there must be some entertainment value associated with them. Longer-format paid TV should also have some entertainment value--although the primary objective of all campaign TV, in the author's opinion, should be to inform. Perhaps McGinniss is at least in part right, however, when he says:

> ...The TV candidate, then, is measured not against his predecessors--not against a standard of performance established by two centuries of democracy--but against Mike Douglas. How well does he handle himself? Does he mumble, does he twitch, does he make me laugh? Do I feel warm inside?[71]

Even better reason for making paid campaign television entertaining is provided in a scholarly paper by Atkin, Bowen, Nayman and Sheinkopf. They found in a 1970 analysis of gubernational campaigns in Wisconsin and Colorado that information gain by voters tended to be associated with the entertainment value of the ads used by the candidates. The paper is well worth the reading of all professional campaign firms.[72]

15. Is humor effective in political campaign television?

The entire question of whether or not humor in general is effective in television is unsettled.

Certainly, humorists like Flip Wilson, Carol Burnett and the cast of M*A*S*H are capable of attracting vast audiences. This is not an issue.

But the question of whether television commercials like "I can't believe I ate the whole thing" actually sells Alka-Seltzer is not clearly answered by available public research. According to Karlins and Abelson, the small amount of public research into the effectiveness of humorous spots provides no clear answers.[73]

The question of humor in political campaign television is particularly unclear.

Certainly, John F. Kennedy's use of what appeared to be spontaneous wit (he used a number of well-known comedians to provide him with one-liners) didn't seem to hurt him. Senator Sam Ervin's homespun anecdotes also appear to be a political asset for him.

For the candidate to show that he has a sense of humor when being interviewed on television would appear to be helpful to him as long as he doesn't overdo the use of humor to the point where he appears to be a buffoon.

The use of candidate humor in paid political spots, on the other hand, appears to be dangerous if for no other reason than that few, if any candidates, make any attempt to be funny in paid spots. The public is accustomed to the candidate wooing their votes in a serious vein.

16. Is television more effective in certain types of political campaigns?

Professional campaign managers cite several instances where television is the most important medium around which to organize a campaign.

One case often cited occurs when an unknown candidate is running against a well-known person, particularly a well-known incumbent. In such a case, television is capable of reaching negotiable voters who can't be reached by personal appearances of the candidate, direct mail, door-knocking visits by campaign volunteers, radio, newspapers, magazines or other media.

The incumbent can perhaps best use television when he has made little impression on the voters, when he has made a negative impression on the voters, or when his opponent is using television heavily and there is a need to neutralize the opponent's messages.

Some campaign managers say television is particularly effective in primary elections. According to Nimmo, races for a party's endorsement often degenerate into popularity rather than issue contests.[74] The pros may be right in that television is effective in primary races for local, state, and even congressional offices. But the results of use of television by Democratic presidential candidates in the 1972 primaries seem to refute the widely accepted belief that television is particularly effective in these races.

Another case where television may be particularly effective is when the candidate faces a hostile newspaper-magazine conglomerate. Paid television can permit the candidate to hurdle the hostile press and go straight to the voters. This seems to have in part been Nixon's strategy in 1968, although the press in that year was probably less hostile than Nixon believed it to be.

McGinniss suggests that television can be particularly effective when the candidate is devoid of ideas and has nothing but image to run on:

> Television seems particularly useful to the politician who can be charming but lacks ideas. Print is for ideas. Newspapers write not about people but policies...Columnists--and commentators in the more polysyllabic manazines--concentrate on ideology. They do not care what a man sounds like; only how he thinks.[75]

17. Does having "the best" professional political campaign firm around give a candidate an unfair edge over his opponent?

The candidate with a good professional firm probably has an advantage over the candidate with no firm or a poor one. But few candidates today fail to retain good professional firms--unless they are running for unimportant small-town offices.

There are good agencies on both the Republican and Democratic sides. When they team up against one another--as Guggenheim did against Ailes in

Wisconsin in 1970--they probably tend to neutralize one another. The track record of even the "heavyweight" firms in 1970 (the last general election year where the two political camps were fairly evenly balanced) were anything but impressive. Most of the well-known firms had an approximately even number of wins and losses, despite the fact that the big agencies refuse to take on a candidate unless they think he has a chance of winning. For example, Bailey Deardourff, Bowen of Washington had three winners and three losers. The Shelby Storck Organization of St. Louis had one winner and one loser. Guggenheim Production of Washington had four winners and four losers.[76]

Certainly, some agencies are batting better than .500. Marttila, Payne and Whitaker and Baxter are among the examples. Firms handling Democratic congressional candidates in 1974 are likely to have better track records than firms handling Republicans. But in time, the law of averages seems to catch up with most agencies, even the hot ones.

The most basic lesson of politics, after all--one of the few bromides that does not transmute with the passage of time--is that for every winner in a political campaign there must be one or more losers. Historical evidence seems to indicate that even the hottest political counseling firms can't forever keep in office a man the electorate dislikes.

POSTSCRIPT: After this paper had been written, the fifth of the special congressional elections was held in Michigan's Eighth District. Democratic underdog Traxler defeated Republican favorite Sparling, giving the Democratic Party four wins in five attempts.

While the Democratic victories may foreshadow a "veto-proof Congress" following the November elections, it is wise to remember that much can change between now and the fall general elections. In 1923, following the scandals that wracked the Harding Administration, pundits were predicting an easy victory in 1924 for the Democratic presidential candidate. But the two strongest Democrats, McAdoo and Smith, deadlocked in the Democratic nominating convention. The Democrats, running a dark horse compromise candidate, were defeated by Republican standard-bearer Coolidge.

Just as much changed between 1923 and 1924, much can change between now and November.

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CURRENT EMPHASIS ON CORPORATE PUBLIC RELATIONS ADVERTISING

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Part I

There appears to be a striking dichotomy in the semantic descriptions of four popular advertising terms in the field of Public Relations--namely, Institutional Advertising, Corporate Advertising, Public Service Advertising, and Public Relations Advertising. This confusion in terminology prevails among academicians in educational institutions, authors of Advertising texts, business and industrial corporations, advertising practitioners, and Associations in Advertising and Public Relations.

Simply stated, "Public Relations" means "Relating to the Public" which is encompassed, perhaps, in each of the four terms listed above, but with varied purposes and philosophies of emphasis. Granted that the definitions and concepts related to Public Relations have changed considerably during the last five to ten years, yet there still remains apparent confusion in the interpretation of the terms Institutional, Corporate, Public Service, and Public Relations-Advertising.

To observe the variances in interpretation and description of these terms in the area of Business and Industrial Public Relations, four current textbooks in the field of Advertising will be briefly analyzed.

DUNN AND BARBAN, ADVERTISING: Its Role in Modern Marketing. 1974 (3rd. edition)

In their opening paragraph of Chapter 31, "Public Relations," appears the following statement:

> The emphasis in this book so far has been on the promotion of goods and services. In this Chapter we want to examine an increasingly important aspect of modern communication--the promotion of ideas rather than products, and the creation of favorable attitudes toward the company or organization.[1] (Italics mine)

The authors agree, however, there is no satisfactory term to cover this type of communication which is sometimes called "institutional," "idea," "non-product," and "public relations" advertising! They admit that the various labeling emanates from the problem of the broad coverage and variety of the objectives, audiences, and communication tools. They adopt the term "public relations" advertising because of their belief that the emphasis belongs in the realm of communication objectives, such as:

(1) The Company or group may feel it is getting a "bad press" in non-advertising columns--covering labor strikes at the Company or on an unpopular cause supported by the Company.

(2) Sometimes the organization feels strongly about a certain issue and is afraid the public is apathetic.
(3) The firm's management may be upset about a piece of pending legislation....
(4) At other times the advertiser merely hopes to add a helping hand to a generally accepted cause, (for example, "Support the United Way").[2]

In summary, these authors conclude that public relations advertising falls into two general categories--image building and action inducing.... "In general, public relations is for companies that conscientiously try to live up to the modern concept of social, as well as economic responsibilities, and contend that any business that chooses to disregard this concept should probably leave public relations alone, for it is not a means of manipulating public opinion at will."[3]

FREY & HALTERMAN, ADVERTISING 4th edition, 1970

These authors definitely separate "institutional advertising" from "public relations advertising" by pointing up that "institutional advertising" is to stimulate patronage motives.

Therefore, the major emphasis in institutional advertising, according to these authors, is placed on securing patronage to the firm rather than on benefits inherent in the product. The appeals relate to (1) integrity of the corporation, (2) its experience in the field, and (3) its research and development activities.

The authors describe another type of "institutional" Advertising related to retail advertising which stresses (1) convenience of location, (2) wide assortment of merchandise, and (3) friendly and well-informed sales clerks.[4]

Obviously, this type of "institutional" advertising should be assessed on the basis of the importance of the institutional message to customer purchase patterns for its main purpose is to encourage patronage motives.

According to Frey and Halterman's interpretation, Public Relations Advertising (in contrast to "Institutional" Advertising) is designed to accomplish goals NOT related to product acceptance. They admit, however, that public relations advertising is often loosely identified as "institutional" advertising!! But they clarify the difference between public relations and institutional advertising with the recommendation that public relations goals should be planned and budgeted SEPARATELY from "Sales oriented advertising and promotion."[5]

In Frey and Halterman's Chapter 23 on "The Social Viewpoint" they emphasize the great contributions to Public Service Advertising sponsored by the Advertising Council which aids government agencies and nongovernment organizations. The Council is composed of a nonprofit group of people in the advertising industry who work together on important national problems, with funds and personnel provided by advertisers, advertising agencies, and media. Obviously, their concept of Public Service Advertising is separate and apart from Institutional and Public Relations Advertising as sponsored by business and industrial corporations!

OTTO KLEPPNER, ADVERTISING PROCEDURE (Sixth Edition) 1973

Interestingly enough, Kleppner does not use the term "Public Relations Advertising" nor does he include the term in his index! He admits, however, that Advertising is used for many purposes other than to sell goods and services (the area on which he concentrates throughout his text). He lists many types of information and worthwhile causes conveyed to the public by corporation and non-profit groups under the heading "Other Purposes of Advertising" and conveys that Public Service Advertising is often sponsored by a corporation that is public-spirited and "sees a consistency with their own long-range goals in supporting the cause sponsored." He cites and includes two "Institutional" advertisements for "Public Service": The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company ad on the prevention of accidents, and another by Edison on "Ten Ways to save a Watt (it's wise to conserve energy)". He classifies these ads as "Institutional" in that they seek good will for their entire company, and they are also "Public Service" ads in the message they convey. Kleppner refers to these ads as "examples of two goals meeting in one advertisement."[7]

Obviously, Kleppner is using the term "Institutional Advertising" in the broad sense of Public Service Advertising (as reflected in the two ads described above), and does not view "Institutional Advertising"--like Frey and Halterman--as the type of advertising confined to "patronage motives"! Nor does Kleppner view "Public Service Advertising" as confined to the operation of the Advertising Council (as interpreted by Frey and Halterman)!

Although Otto Kleppner does not include the classification of "Public Relations Advertising" per se, he perhaps infers its use in his statement, that "advertising represents a technique and a facility in the United States to all who have a message to spread before the public."[8]

MAURICE I. MANDELL, ADVERTISING (Second Edition) 1974

Using the term "institutional" as a synonym for "corporate" advertising, Mandell classifies three forms of Institutional Advertising: (1) Patronage Institutional Advertising, (2) Public Relations Institutional Advertising, and (3) Public Service Institutional Advertising.[9]

He describes Patronage Institutional Advertising as a method to sell the idea of patronizing a producer or retailer for reasons other than specific product merits, and provides the example of the slogan, "You can be sure if it's Westinghouse" which eliminates product reference, but is designed to increase the prestige of the Corporation! (Similar to Frey and Halterman's "patronage motives" in his Institutional Advertising.)

Mandell's second classification Public Relations Institutional Advertising is designed to improve the firm's image or reputation, or forestall public ill will by presenting the corporation side of a labor dispute, countering government accusation of violation of anti-trust laws, etc.

His third form is classified as Public Service Institutional Advertising--a method of using advertising to promote noncontroversial causes in the interest of the public, such as highway safety, forest fire prevention, anti-litter campaigns, etc., which many authors of texts and advertising practitioners also describes as "Public Relations Advertising!" The author's inclusion of

"Institutional" in Public Relations and Public Service Advertising is perhaps more closely related to Kleppner's broad interpretation than to Frey & Halterman's concept of "Institutional Advertising" as related specifically to Patronage Motives.

In summary, from the above analysis, it appears there is need for more standardized terminology in the interpretation of the various types of advertising in the broad field of Public Relations. In Part II, it is evident that this same problem exists among Publishers and Associations in the field of Public Relations--as well as among the Advertising Personnel in Business and Industry--reflected by the intense search for new semantics by public relations communicators in fulfilling the role of SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY to the Public.

Part II

The editors of the Public Relations News--a magazine for PR personnel formulated this definition:

> Public Relations is the management function which evaluates public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an individual or an organization with the public interest, and plans and executes a program of action to earn public understanding and acceptance.[10]

Corporate Public Relations Advertising of the current era is epitomized in the interpretation by the Public Relations Society of America in their monthly publication, THE PUBLIC RELATIONS JOURNAL. In an editorial of a recent issue of the Public Relations Journal the following statement appeared:

> Time was when a business could mind its own business and stay quietly in business. Concentrate on performance, was the watchword, and the reputation will take care of itself.
>
> This is no longer enough. The 1970's demand the pursuit of profits and accountability to society go hand-in-hand. The corporate reputation now depends on management decisions made with a keen eye to economic and SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES. Management is responding by placing SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY functions at the highest company levels, and turning to communications programs to develop the full potential of the corporate reputation.
>
> In fact, the truly modern, forward-looking corporation finds itself taking the whole of Society into its corporate confidence as a matter of Communications Policy.[11]
>
> A STRONG CORPORATE REPUTATION WITH THE PUBLIC AT LARGE HAS BECOME ONE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT ASSETS ON A COMPANY'S BALANCE SHEET. A STRONG CORPORATE ADVERTISING PROGRAM THAT PUTS THIS REPUTATION TO WORK AUGMENTS GOOD BUSINESS, AND GOOD BUSINESS CITIZENSHIP.[12]

It is very interesting to note that PUBLIC RELATIONS Executives now control many important aspects of the Corporate Advertising programs now being launched.

Thomas Kindre and Philip Callanan, senior Vice Presidents of Hill and Knowleton, Inc., (where they are in charge of the Advertising Department and

Creative Services Division, respectively) are eagerly searching for a new term for "corporate" advertising.

> What we still have to refer to as 'corporate' advertising--because we lack a better, more accurate term that everyone can agree on--is playing an ever larger role in the total communications programs of business and industries.
>
> As an element of these programs, it is helping to confront and explain some of the major issues with which business, government, and the public are concerned--for example, the energy crisis, increased prices of goods and services, shortages of essential items, environmental problems, consumer issues, government regulation, and others.[13]

Certainly these observations by Kindre and Callanan are vitally important, and it is gratifying to have confirmed that the current usage of "corporate advertising" does not reflect the type of business and industrial communication to the public so sorely needed in this current era of problem confrontation. It is apparent that a new term must be created to fulfill the communication problems on current issues. It is encouraging to find that in the search for new terminology to replace the long-used terms of institutional, corporate, public service, or public relations advertising, many companies are actively building new communication programs and projects for public enlightenment to safeguard their reputations and their important interest in SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES.

For example, Kindre and Callanan have coined the term "PAID-SPACE COMMUNICATIONS" as the substitute for Corporate Advertising. They admit that "Paid-Space Communications sounds like, and IS, just a fancy way of referring to Advertising--nevertheless, it makes one of those semantic distinctions that really help clear the air."[14]

They also agree that "paid-space communications" (their suggested replacement for Corporate advertising) will also bring a difficult but certainly a challenging search for the right words and art work. It is obvious that the public will be very receptive to helpful guidance and information on the many problems with which they are now confronted, if business and industry are capable of producing communications sufficiently challenging and informative to induce the public's interest and cooperation.

Ken Makovsky, a group supervisor at Harshe-Rotman & Druck, Inc., in New York City, conducted a spot survey of nearly 100 corporate ads appearing in 1973 issues of Time, U.S News & World Report, Fortune, Forbes, and Business Week, and discovered that 40 "Public Relations" advertisements were concerned with public issues. "The most popular public issue embraced was the energy crisis which claimed 11 of the 40 ads!"[15]

> The controversial public issues which corporations have been covering in their public relations advertising read like a topical summary of the NATION'S front pages:
>
> energy crisis (emphasis on gas shortage)
> blue-collar boredom, decreasing popularity of business, environment, return of the small investor to the market, overseas investments, advantages of multinational business, welfare, limits of growth, smoking, safety, no-fault insurance, education, disease, hunger, noise pollution, etc.[16]

It is apparent that there is an ever-increasing trend in most corporate advertising toward a conceptual approach as described above. A recent issue of the Gallagher Report projects that 55% of all advertising in the next decade will concentrate on idea transmission, compared with only 15% today. The report also stresses that U. S. Government advertising at the present time is almost 100% concept promotion![17]

Perhaps "Paid-Space Communications" will encourage additional dynamic descriptive names in the near future as a substitute for the current reference to "Corporate Advertising." But whatever name is coined to light the way for dynamic idea transmission of public issues, it should not duplicate the confusing semantics of the present! For the writer believes that a brand new era in corporate public relations advertising is on the threshold, along with other types of public awareness promotion programs. There is a paramount need for more Direct Mail Booklets to "tell it how it is."--Public Relations Documentaries on TV--"Town Hall" Community Programs with capable speakers--and a cooperative and enlightened PRESS!

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Appendix

EXCERPTS FROM A SPEECH DELIVERED BY A VICE-PRESIDENT OF A WELL-KNOWN CORPORATION--(BOOKLET COVERING COMPLETE SPEECH DISTRIBUTED TO MEMBERS OF THE PUBLIC RELATIONS SOCIETY OF AMERICA)

Title: Speak Up! Speak Out!

1. ESTEEM FOR THE AMERICAN BUSINESSMAN HAS FALLEN TO AN ALL-TIME LOW.

   People simply don't believe in us anymore. They look at us with suspicion. Sometimes downright hostility. They are not subversives, or fellow travelers. They are decent fellow Americans and they care deeply about this country. They honestly feel that business and businessmen and the free enterprise system are hostile to the American way of life.

2. WE ASSUMED THAT EVERYBODY UNDERSTOOD HOW WE WERE PUTTING PROFITS TO WORK in community projects, in research and development, in solving social problems, matters that government bureaucracies could only put on a committee agenda. Yes, there have been abuses and bad guys and sometimes poor product performance and indifferent service...okay. Let's admit it.

3. AND LET'S ALSO ADMIT THE WHOLE STORY: Excellent product performance, concerned service, corporate involvement with community problems, profit sharing, health programs, pensions, and all the other benefits that business has brought within reach of the average man. Business cannot be exactly what the government wants. What pressure groups want. What consumers want. What theoretical economists want. And what the stockholders want. It has to have an identity that can withstand challenge.

4. BUSINESS HAS THAT KIND OF IDENTITY, an identity that knowledgeable people recognize. For the most part American business is honest, vigorous, people--involved. It has integrity. It has an identity that I, for one, am proud of.

   BUT BUSINESS HAS ALLOWED ITS ENEMIES TO DEFINE IT; its critics to explain it; its foes to report it. And businessmen, like you and me, have not taken the time to protest. To put the record straight. And the public has mistaken our silence for pleading the Fifth Amendment. Well, today, I'm here to holler, "Now, wait just a damned minute."

5. TODAY, RIGHT NOW, THIS MINUTE __________________ are speaking up. To explain to people who have forgotten, or maybe never knew that America is a capitalistic country: Capitalism created the wealth we have shared with the whole world, including the most critical of non-capitalistic countries. American business has endowed the universities, the foundations, the philanthropic societies, the arts, the sciences, not because of guilt or fear; but because sharing this wealth is a corporate responsibility to the public. Returning some of it to the people whose purchases made it possible is good business.

6. OUR SCHOOLS TEACH ALMOST EVERYTHING YOU CAN THINK OF EXCEPT HOW AMERICAN BUSINESS WORKS. They teach about socialism. They teach about communism and other ideologies but very little about capitalism. The facts are on our side. See that teachers, schools, women's clubs are provided with those facts. Organize meetings. Line up speakers. Most of life is lived as a local affair. It is up to you to involve your community with the success of your business. And the reasons for its continued success. (Perhaps this comment refers to High-School education.)

7. NOW, BEFORE WE GO AROUND TRUMPETING ABOUT THE JUSTICE OF OUR CAUSE, WE'VE GOT TO TAKE A GOOD LOOK AT OURSELVES. What about those criticisms? Some of them have been true. If the American businessman is often contemptuously regarded, often by his own sons and daughters, hasn't he been guilty at times of the materialism that measures success only in the possession of things? If we pretend there have been no business abuses, or ignore them, we'll end up talking to ourselves. So, let's admit that yes, business has its share of bad guys who make it rough for everyone.

8. THAT MECHANISM IS: PROFIT. IT HAS BECOME A RED FLAG WORD to social reformers and to the kids who self-consciously assure their businessmen fathers that they want to do something significant. It's OK to work for a foundation, to teach in a prestigious university or go into government service. But make money? Profit? They are insulted. Yet, it is profit that finances the foundations, the universities, the government.

9. NEARLY EVERYONE BELIEVES THAT BUSINESS MAKES A 28% PROFIT ON THE DOLLAR. The public has been encouraged in this belief by detractors in the press, the union hall and the classroom. Nearly 75 cents of our sales dollar is in the manufacturing cost. And after taxes, costs, benefits, etc., the profit return on the dollar is really only four cents. If that profit is so limited that it's no longer profitable for Aunt Emily to trust her savings to business, she will not put her money to work. She'll stuff it in her mattress. Profit has to be explained to the public in terms of risk and performance. The public in general doesn't know what profit does.

10. OUR ECONOMY DEPENDS ON ADVERTISING TO GET OUT THE WORD THAT--HEY, LOOK--THERE'S A BETTER, FASTER, EASIER WAY TO DO SOMETHING. Advertising by itself doesn't move products. It informs consumers of new products. And the benefits of those products. Here's what we've got. Here's what it does. Here's where you get it. It is the consumer armed with the information she got from advertising who moves products. And as for advertising forcing a bad product on a woman--well, let me tell you it will only happen once. She won't buy it a second time. And you can count on it; she will tell everyone within listening range of her misfortune with that product.

And then there's that tired story that advertising forces a woman to buy products she doesn't want or need. Despite the most sophisticated marketing techniques, some products don't make it because the consumer doesn't want them. The automobile industry has some of the brightest, smartest marketing men in captivity. Their market research proved that everyone in the country wanted an Edsel. It was heavily advertised and promoted, but the consumer didn't buy it.

PUBLIC RELATIONS EDUCATION IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

by
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While it is possible to trace the roots of public relations practice a good way back into human history, public relations as a function of business management in the United States originated shortly after the turn of the present century. The date may be fixed in 1906, when the pioneering public relations man, Ivy Lee, opened his business news bureau to serve some major American industries.

Lee's operation was based on his concept that if American businessmen wished to gain the public's confidence, they would have to abandon their traditional ways of secrecy and provide information to the public about their policies and practices. Since that time, business public relations has evolved into a three-fold concept. From an ideal point of view, business public relations today should consist of three distinctive functions:

1. A continuing analysis of the social climate in which a particular business or other institution operates.
2. Counseling of management on the public relations aspects of its policies and practices.
3. Communication--both ways--between a particular management and its publics.

It should be unnecessary to point out that this three-dimensional type of public relations is not widely practiced. The shocking failures of numerous corporations--among them, some of America's greatest corporations--in the public relations arena in recent years are testimony to the fact that many contemporary managements do not understand the public relations function.

These failures in public relations have found major corporations in conflict with the public interest. Why has this happened? Obviously, there is a complex of causes for this situation. But I think there are two important contributing reasons:

1. The widespread misuse of public relations staffs by top-level corporate executives.
2. A serious dearth of public relations practitioners with the ability and experience to qualify as counselors to top-level management.

As educators, you can help to correct this situation, as you endeavor to train tomorrow's generation of public relations executives.

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If public relations as a function of corporate management is some 75 years old in the United States, public relations education in our country is younger still. The first college-level course in public relations was established and taught by Edward L. Bernays a little more than 50 years ago, in 1923 at New York University.

Since that time, public relations courses in American colleges and universities have proliferated. A study (This study, entitled "Trends in Public Relations Education, 1964-1970," was published by the Foundation for Public Relations Research and Education in 1971. It is available from Dr. F. C. Teahan, Education Director of the Public Relations Society of America, 845 Third Avenue, New York, New York 10022. A listing of colleges with PR courses is also available from PRSA.) by Dr. Ray Heibert, dean of the School of Journalism at the University of Maryland, conducted for the Foundation for Public Relations Research and Education in 1960, revealed that one or more courses in public relations are taught in 300 colleges and universities throughout the United States. Unfortunately, however, in well over 200 of these institutions there is only one introductory course in public relations. Only 87 have two or more courses. Only a handful of these colleges and universities have degree programs in PR at the bachelor's level, and of these only eight are accredited today by the American Council for Education in Journalism (the official accrediting agency for schools and colleges of journalism in the United States). (I should note that most public relations programs are conducted in schools and departments of journalism or communications.)

But the increase in the number of public relations courses and programs over the last 50 years has not been equalled by a comparable improvement in the quality of such education. Over the last five years, as the representative of the Public Relations Society of America on the American Council for Education in Journalism, I have been asked on numerous occasions to serve as a member of accreditation examination teams when a degree program in public relations is submitted for accreditation. My experience as a member of these ACEJ accreditation teams has led me to certain tentative conclusions:

1. That the existing courses in public relations are largely technique-oriented, and the students who are taking them gain little understanding of the public relations function in management. Few students gain a conceptual background of public relations principles, standards and ethics into which they can fit the utilization of the techniques.
2. There are no commonly accepted standards among PR educators for the teaching of the subject matter. Consequently the nature and the content of public relations courses vary widely.
3. Frequently, there is duplication in technique training among the PR courses and certain journalism courses (which the students majoring in PR are also required to take).
4. In some institutions, there is insufficient flexibility for the student to combine his courses in public relations with courses in business administration or other special areas in which he may choose a PR career (i.e., political science, public administration, international affairs, etc.).

Additionally, I might state that the experience of the Public Relations Society of America in its relations with the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (a professional body made up of the deans of schools and colleges of business in the United States) indicates that business schools all too frequently neglect the teaching of public relations as a tool of management. A recent survey by PRSA of business schools and colleges indicated that less than a handful of them require a course in public relations for their students majoring in business administration.

Incidentally, I have read with interest the paper presented earlier at this meeting by Professor Barbara Coe of New York University, in which she analyzes and compares the teaching of advertising in business schools as contrasted with the teaching of advertising in schools of journalism and communications. She points out that in schools of journalism and communications, students majoring in advertising are being prepared to become professional practitioners. On the other hand, students in schools of business who take courses in advertising need a different type of education in advertising because they do not expect to practice in the field. Instead they need to have a broad understanding of advertising as a tool of management. This same distinction applied--or should apply--in respect to the teaching of public relations in schools of business as compared to the teaching of public relations in schools of journalism or communications.

Others, like myself, have been disturbed by the lack of standards and the lack of quality in public relations education. Last year, following a discussion of this problem at the meeting of the Public Relations Division of the Association for Education in Journalism (under the direction of Dr. Frazier Moore of the University of Georgia, 1973-74 president of the PR Division of AEJ), a commission of four prominent educators and three prominent practitioners was established to study this matter and come up with recommendations. Professor Scott Cutlip of the University of Wisconsin and I were named as co-chairman of this AEJ Commission on Public Relations Education.

This commission has several purposes:

1. To determine the requirements for the professional practice of public relations--not only for today but for tomorrow as well.
2. To determine the ways in which education to prepare people for public relations work can be improved, so as to meet the requirements for professional practice.
3. Through improvements in education, to effect improvements in the professional practice of public relations itself.
4. To strengthen and improve the ethical standards for the professional practice of public relations, particularly in respect to emphasizing the practitioner's responsibility to society at large, above and beyond his responsibilities to a particular client or employer.
5. To effect a greater degree of coordination between the degree-granting process of the educational institutions and the processes for admission to the Public Relations Society of America (or admission to the practice of public relations, if and when legal standards for admission are established).

The first part of our study will be devoted to the curriculum for the student majoring in public relations at the bachelor's level. To do this we shall have to determine the appropriate body of knowledge, possession of which is a prerequisite to professional practice. Then we shall have to examine how this body of knowledge is being transmitted today in educational institutions at the college level which offer degree programs.

We anticipate also making recommendations concerning indoctrination courses for students who are not majoring in public relations, but who are majoring in such other fields as business administration, public administration, etc., and who need to have an understanding of public relations as a tool of management.

We shall endeavor also to make recommendations concerning the relationship of the public relations program to the general education of the students in the liberal arts and humanities, and its relationship also to education in journalism or communications or other specialized fields.

Our ultimate goal lies far beyond the immediate concern for improving the teaching of public relations per se. We are concerned indeed with contributing to the professionalization of public relations practice in our society, in a way that will not only enhance the role of the public relations practitioner, but place his duty to society above his other responsibilities. It is only by doing this that ultimately we can create a true profession from what is now essentially a combination of an art and a craft.

SPEECH WRITING A MAJOR PUBLIC RELATIONS ACTIVITY?

by
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Problem

Since the days of the ancient Greek Sophists speech ghostwriting has been an accepted norm in politics. The art has gained such wide usage that modern scholars are often faced with the task of separating speech writer and speaker when analysing rhetorical content. Some "ghosts" have even gained fame along with their political candidate, such as Theodore Sorrensen who authored much of John Kennedy's "Rhetoric of the New Frontier." Less and less today public figures try to withhold the fact that they rely on others to bear the major burden of speech writing for their busy agenda. In fact, good arguments could be made to support the use of "ghosts" by public officials who wish to make prudent use of their time. People occupying public office are called upon to make so many speeches that to research and write them all would leave very little time for the actual business of their office.

With the professional speech writer being in such demand, it is surprising that so little is known about the job or the people performing it. A study reported by Douglas P. Starr in the March, 1971 issue of the Public Relations Journal points to the fact that little detailed study has been done concerning ghostwriting as a profession (Starr, 1971, p. 10). His investigation, dealing with speech writers in the Florida state capital, reveals that most "ghosts" are members of public relations staffs. Starr's report also indicated that most speech writers found their way into the profession by accident, discovering that it was part of the duties expected of public relations practitioners.

The findings of the Florida study lead to questions about the extent of speech writing in the public relations profession as a whole. Can speech writing be considered a major public relations function? Should schools be preparing their public relations students to better fulfill this function? In an attempt to answer these questions the present study was formulated to investigate nonpolitical ghostwriting. It would seem logical that busy corporation executives have very little time to devote to the research and composition of speeches. However, in this era of public responsibility and consumer awareness it has become more important than ever that corporate executives become effective spokesmen for their company's point of view. Therefore, the same pressures of time and public responsibility that forced the politician to seek expert help in speech writing also seem to be affecting the modern corporation executive. Just as the politician turns to his Ghostwriter, the public relations department or outside counseling firm would seem to be the place for the executive to obtain the needed expertise. The following research was conducted to determine the magnitude and importance of speech writing as a public relations activity.

Method

The directory of the Public Relations Society of America was used to select recipients of a survey questionnaire. Corporate public relations departments and public relations counseling firms listing more than five members were selected (N=155). The questionnaire was then mailed to the senior officer or department head listed with instructions to pass the instrument on if the recipient did not feel qualified to respond. The respondent was asked to fill out the seven items giving a variety of responses varying from yes-no to providing the number of staff members who would fall into certain categories. The specific questions asked were:

1. Does your firm or department ever write or help to write speeches for clients or officials of the company?
2. How many employees in your firm or department are called upon at any time to participate in speech writing activities? How many have speech writing as their primary duty?
3. How many speeches per year are these individuals called upon to help prepare?
4. What are the general titles held by persons involved in speech writing in your organization?
5. For what duties other than speech writing are these employees responsible?
6. What are the educational backgrounds of the above persons?
7. Please indicate how many of the above persons fit into each range of years of experience in the public relations profession? 1-4; 5-9; 10 or more.

Returned questionnaires were divided into two groups: corporate departments and counseling firms. Responses for each item were tabulated and percentages were calculated based on the total number in each group. Using the calculated percentages, the two groups were compared on an item by item basis and conclusions were drawn from these comparisons.

Results

Of the 155 questionnaires mailed, 44% (68) were returned in useable condition (45 corporations, 23 firms). In response to the first item 95% of the respondents indicated that their organization did participate in the preparation of speeches for clients or corporate executives. A breakdown of the numbers between counseling firms and corporate departments yielded similar results. 95% of each group responded affirmatively.

TABLE 1

Number of Employees in Responding Corporations and Firms Who Participate in Speech Writing Activities

	Total Speech Writers N=359	Specialists N=46
Corporate P.R. Dept.	203 (56.6%)	39 (84.4%)
P.R. Counseling Firm	156 (43.4%)	7 (15.2%)

From the 95% who indicated that they did participate in speech writing activities 359 speech writers were tabulated with 46 of these being designated as practitioners for whom speech writing is their primary duty (Table 1). It should be noted that corporate P.R. departments returned 66.2% of the affirmative questionnaires while counseling firms returned only 33.8%. However, 43.4% of the reported speech writers were from counseling firms while only 56.6% were reported by the corporate departments. Therefore the counseling firms averaged just over 7 speech writers each while the corporate departments averaged less than 5 speech writers each. However, the corporate public relations departments held a much higher percentage (84.8%) of the total number of speech specialists reported with the counseling firms reporting only 15.2% of the total. Moreover, 20% of the 203 speech writers reported by corporations were specialists while only 5% of the 156 counseling firms' speech writers were designated as specialists. It would appear from this data that most practitioners at public relations counseling firms might be called upon to help prepare a speech. Corporate departments on the other hand tend to have fewer practitioners who participate in speech writing perhaps resulting from the existence of more specialists who carry most of the load.

TABLE 2

Comparative Number of Speeches Employees in P.R. Firms and Corporate Departments Work on Each Year

Number of speeches per year	Corp. Dept. N=203	P.R. Firms N=156
1-3	15.8%	21.1%
3-5	23.2%	25.7%
5-10	22.2%	16.1%
more than 10	39.0%	37.2%

Again pointing out the apparent specialized nature of corporate departments is the fact that their speech writers produce more speeches per year than those in a counseling firm. According to the responses indicated in Table 2, 61.2% of the corporate writers work on 5 or more speeches per year while only 53.3% of the counseling firm writers perform at that level. Combining both groups it would be noticed that 38.2% of the 359 speech writers reported worked on more than 10 speeches per year. This fact is particularly interesting in view of the data in Table 1 which indicate that only 12.8% (46) of the combined total were reported as speech specialists. Indications seem to strongly suggest that the general public relations professional does a great deal of speech writing in addition to his other duties.

Responses to question number four regarding the general titles held by persons involved in speech writing proved to be so broad that no trend or pattern could be detected. Such titles seem to vary greatly from organization to organization.

TABLE 3

Comparison of Other Jobs Performed by Speech Writers in Corporate Departments and P.R. Firms

Job Classification*	Corp. Dept. N=43	P.R. Firms N=22
Writing	90.7%	100.0%
Editing	79.1%	81.8%
Placement	32.6%	77.3%
Promotion	30.2%	40.9%
Speaking	32.6%	27.3%
Production	44.2%	27.3%
Programming	27.9%	45.5%
Institutional Advertising	27.9%	22.7%
Other	34.9%	22.7%

*Eight major job classifications as published by the Public Relations Society of America

Table 3 shows that of the eight major job classifications published by the Public Relations Society of America all are apt to be part of a speech writer's duties. The most frequently indicated classifications for public relations counseling firms were writing (100%), editing (81.8%), placement (77.3%) and programming (45.5%). Corporate public relations departments indicated writing (90.7%), editing (79.1%) and production (44.2%). As expected, writing and editing were the most often indicated jobs for both types of organizations; however, the other classifications provided an interesting comparison. Placement is a job; that 77.3% of the counseling firms indicated as being part of the speech writer's job, however, only 32.6% of the corporations chose this classification. Likewise 45.5% of the counseling firms said programming was done by speech writers compared to 27.9% of the corporations. On the other hand corporate departments indicated production 44.2% to 27.3% over the counseling firms. This difference in emphasis beyond the primary duties of writing and editing seems to reflect functional differences between the two types of public relations practices. It should also be noted that none of the eight classifications were ranked below 22.7% indicating that most speech writers are expected to function in a wide range of jobs.

In terms of education the typical public relations speech writer is a college graduate with a degree in Journalism (Table 4). Degrees in Speech are almost non-existent among these professionals although many of them have probably experienced some formal training in public speaking. Still it is significant that while 20% of the corporate speech writers are specialists only 1.5% actually have a college degree in the discipline. This can possibly be explained by the fact earlier noted that most speech writers are journalistically trained public relations practitioners who become speech writers almost by accident. Next to Journalism, the most frequently indicated classification was "other." Organizations responding to this category listed a wide variety of educational backgrounds ranging from Fine Arts to Chemical Engineering.

TABLE 4

Comparative Educational Backgrounds of Corporate Department and Counseling Firm Speech Writers

Educational Background	Corp. Dept. N=203	P.R. Firms N=156
No college degree	10.4%	3.2%
Bachelor's degree - Business	6.4%	10.9%
Bachelor's degree - Journalism	43.4%	33.4%
Bachelor's degree - Speech	1.5%	-0-
Bachelor's degree - Other	22.7%	24.2%
Master's degree - Business	2.0%	7.7%
Master's degree- Journalism	5.5%	8.4%
Master's degree - Speech	.05%	-0-
Master's degree - Other	7.9%	5.2%

In terms of experience in the profession (Table 5) the majority of speech writers have been in public relations for ten or more years. This amount of experience seems to indicate that speech writing is a public relations function of the highest caliber and priority. Certainly such a large number of experienced practitioners would not be engaged in an activity that was not a vital one in terms of the overall public relations function of their organization.

TABLE 5

Comparative Years of Experience in the Public Relations Profession for Speech Writers in Corporate Departments and P.R. Firms

Years of Experience	Corp. Dept. N=203	P.R. Firm N=156
1-4	8.9%	10.9%
5-9	22.7%	35.9%
10 or more	68.5%	53.2%

Discussion

The results of this study would indicate that speech ghostwriting is indeed an important function of most public relations organizations. Even though most of the speech specialists seem to be employed in corporate departments the counseling firms indicate that over half of their writers work on more than five speeches per year. This coupled with the large number of experienced professionals who engage in speech preparation would seem to justify more detailed investigation. Certainly the data collected here should be enough to convince those who seek jobs in the public relations profession that a knowledge of speech writing is an advantage. But some questions remain unanswered in this area: What type of preparation would best provide this knowledge? How does the writing of speeches differ from other types of writing and editing? Should those who aspire to specialize in speech writing be trained differently from other public relations professionals? However, what can be said from the present study is that speech writing is a major public relations function by virtue of its widespread and large scale practice.

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END OF SESSION VII

SESSION VIII: PERSPECTIVES ON INSTRUCTION - (1) MANAGEMENT CURRICULUM

BUYER BEHAVIOR:
A PEDAGOGICAL INTERPRETATION

by
RICHARD H. EVANS

The buyer behavior model discussed in this paper may be termed a behavioral hierarchy of effects model. It has two directions: one component focuses on the product or service involved and the other interfaces with the act of purchase. It is not intended that this model totally alleviate the aforementioned pedagogical problems. At this stage of development this would almost be an impossible task. Plus a question may be raised that in the interest of theory maturation should the so-called problems be in a sense corrected. The model discussed here may be viewed on a continuum let us assume with the student on one side and the professor often on the other. Generally speaking, the location of the model on the continuum would be towards the perceived needs and abilities of the student.

The model is not without its limitations (2,3). In the main the problems focus on the measurement question and the hierarchy of effects relationship. These limitations, however, should not stifle the use of the model as a pedagogical tool. Methodological and theoretical concepts are important but only after the student has established a knowledge "benchmark" in the subject. In making this statement the writer is in no way attempting to reduce the importance of understanding the limitations or questions about a given model. In keeping with the spirit of the definition of the term model, the buyer behavior model presented in this paper, may be viewed as a "textbook" interpretation. No claim is made that this model indicates how buyers do or should behave.

The model discussed in this paper proceeds from the macro level (4) to the micro level. Let us assume that:

$$D_t = N_t R_t \qquad (1)$$

where:

D_t = Demand, time t

N_t = Number of customers, time t

R_t = Rate of usage, time t

Equation (1) describes why we have a specific demand level. What is needed is a function that assists in explaining the demand level. This may be represented by considering:

$$D_t = f(D'_t, E_t, B_t) \qquad (2)$$

where:

D_t = Demand, time t

D'_t = Demographic variables, time t

E_t = Economic variables, time t

B_t = Behavioral variables, time t

In function (2) demographic variables refer to such factors as age, geographic area, education, occupation and so forth. Economic variables pertain to market size, number of competitors, interest rates and similar such dimensions. Behavioral variables involve four constructs: perception, motivation, attitude and intention. In other words, what is being said is that demand in most cases may be explained by considering demographic, economic and behavioral variables. However, to delve deeper into the demand relationship or buyer behavior the advertiser must understand the ramifications of the behavioral constructs. They are probably at the heart of the demand pattern. The reason for this being that the demographic and economic variables inoculate the behavioral constructs. What takes place with the demographic and economic variables is mirrored or reflected in the psychological set of the buyer. As a function the behavioral variables may be expressed as:

$$B_t = f(P_t, M'_t, A_t, I_t) \qquad (3)$$

where:

B_t = Behavioral variables, time t

P_t = Perception, time t

M'_t = Motivation, time t

A_t = Attitude, time t

I_t = Intention, time t

Proceeding further it may be said that:

$$P_{kit} = f(\sum_{j=1}^{n} PI_{jki}) \qquad (4)$$

where:

P_{kit} = Perception at time t for individual i regarding product k

PI_{jki} = Expected existence of attribute j in product k by individual i

Function (4) refers to the fact that the perception of a product may be viewed in terms of the beliefs of the buyer about the characteristics of the product. In other words, the buyers' perception of a product may be measured or quantified in terms of the probability that a given attribute exists in the product.

The sum of the perceived instrumentalities yield the perception value.

The second component in the behavioral function may be stated:

$$M'_{kit} = F(\sum_{j=1}^{n} PI_{jki} \cdot M_{ji} \cdot S_{ji}) \qquad (5)$$

where:

M'_{kit} = Motivation at time t by individual i regarding product k

PI_{jki} = Expected existence of attribute j in product k by individual i

M_{ji} = Magnitude of satisfaction associated with attribute j for individual i

S_{ji} = Motive strength associated with goal object or attribute j by individual i

This is a summation model (5) in that after the multiplicative activities have been performed relative to each attribute the products are summed to provide the motivation level. In operational terms it may be said that motivation is a function of three components: goal object existence, goal object satisfaction and need strength.

The third behavioral construct in the psychological model is attitude. Attitude may be quantified in the form:

$$A_{kit} = f(\sum_{j=1}^{n} PI_{jki} \cdot M_{jk}) \qquad (6)$$

such that:

A_{kit} = Attitude at time t by individual i regarding product k

PI_{jki} = Expected existence of attribute j in product k by individual i

M_{jk} = Magnitude of satisfaction associated with attribute j for individual i

This attitude model follows the pattern set by Fishbein and Rosenberg (6,7). The M_{jk} is similar in meaning to the term importance and evaluation (8). The reason for this relationship is that importance and evaluation are based on individual satisfaction. In capsule form it can be observed that attitude as a construct may be quantified by considering the probability of attribute existence and the importance or satisfaction one ascribes to a given attribute.

At this juncture the behavioral model takes a different direction. The three relationships previously mentioned all referred to the buyers cognitive interpretation of the product. At this stage we are interested in the buyer's analysis of the act of purchase. This segment (9) of the behavioral model may be seen as:

$$I_{kit} = f(a + b_1 A'_{ik} + b_2 (NM_{ik} \cdot Mc_{ik})) \qquad (7)$$

where:

I_{kit} = Intention to purchase (act), product k at time t by individual i

a, b_1 and b_2 = Constants

A'_{ik} = Attitude of individual i regarding the act of purchasing product k

NM_{ik} = Normative belief of individual i regarding what is expected other will do regarding the purchase of product k

Mc_{ik} = Motive of individual i to comply with the norm (NB) of significant others regarding product k

DISCUSSION

As mentioned previously it is believed that buyer behavior should be taught with a managerial decision-making orientation. The model discussed above contributes to this perspective. A number of examples will now be presented to illustrate the actionable nature of the model.

Assume that an advertiser is interested in using the model to set objectives and to design messages. Starting with the first component in the behavioral sequence the advertiser is in a position to quantify each attribute independently or algebraically in terms of a product or service up to and including the act per se. As an example let us assume a survey was undertaken regarding product X. Further let it be assumed that the necessary data was obtained by using scales that ranged from one to ten. Table 1 illustrates the perception rating.

Table 1 Perception Rating - Product X

Attribute	PI_{jki}
Sweet Taste	1
Low Price	4
Pulpy Texture	3
High Nutritional Value	4

Maximum Score	40
Calculated Score	12
Perception Rating	.30

Notice that the expectations regarding product X are quite low. An objective may be to increase the overall product perceptual rating by focusing in the message on the attribute sweet taste. This is only one example as perhaps all the attributes need to be attended to in message strategy to improve perception.

Table 2 illustrates the calculation of the motivational rating for product X.

Table 2 Motivation Rating - Product X

Attribute	PI_{jki}	M_{ji}	S_{ji}
Sweet Taste	1	5	2
Low Price	4	4	1
Pulpy Texture	3	2	1
High Nutritional Value	4	2	1

Maximum Score	4000
Calculated Score	40
Motivation Rating	.04

The motivation score provides a wealth of information to the advertiser. Besides the perception data, the advertiser can determine the amount of satisfaction that each attribute is yielding to the buyer. This information may be used in message design. In addition, the variable motive strength calls for the identification of pertinent motives and the measurement of their intensity. This information too may be employed in message formation.

The attitude rating involves information from the motivation component. Table 3 illustrates the computation of the attitude construct.

Table 3 Attitude Rating - Product X

Attribute	PI_{jki}	M_{ji}
Sweet Taste	1	5
Low Price	4	4
Pulpy Texture	3	2
High Nutritional Value	4	2

Maximum Score	400
Calculated Score	40
Attitude Rating	.09

It will be noted that the value M_{ji} (magnitude of attribute satisfaction) is used here as a weight relative to the expectation value (PI_{jki}). The value of such a multi-attribute model to the advertiser is that it clearly spells out the ingredients of the attitude construct. If the advertiser desires to increase the attitude rating then steps must be taken to emphasize the selected attribute expectations or evaluations in the message strategy. Uni-attribute models do often not indicate so perspicaciously what may be affecting the attitude level of the buyer.

The last component in the behavioral hierarchy of effects model relates to intention. It may be recalled that this component measures the buyer's view towards the act of purchase. The previous three constructs focused on interpretations toward the product. It may be assumed that the constants a, b_1 and b_2 are given in our case and that they all equal .5. Further, assume that as a result of the survey the values A'_{ik}, NM_{ik}, Mc_{ik} all equal 5, respectively. The I value may then be computed as:

$$I_{kit} = .5 + .5(5) + .5(5\ .5)$$
$$= 15.5$$

A number of ways exist to evaluate this component. One approach may be to concentrate on the A'_{ik} value and to assess its implications as a result of the semantic differential calculation. Another avenue that may be used, for example, to increase the value of this construct is to utilize the NM_{ik} and to focus on the use of significant others in a campaign. The assumption is made with respect to this calculation that the higher the intention value the higher the probability of purchase.

In terms of monitoring an advertising program the behavioral hierarchy of effects model has some operational implications too. As an example, it serves as a useful source of control units. If the advertiser desires to use a research design such as a before-after experiment to evaluate a given message formation, the variables in the model are sensitive enough to register necessary deviations. Plus the model contains enough relationships to make strategy assessment meaningful.

CONCLUSION

Students often find it difficult to meaningfully interpret buyer behavior information. In this paper a model was presented which hopefully will contribute to the learning process and allow students to engage in strategy formulation using buyer behavior data. In terms of buyer behavior students want simplified, deterministic, concreteness, objective, and descriptive data but they are often taught near opposites. When employing the behavioral hierarchy of effects model each variable is delineated and quantified. Thus in relatively straight forward terms the student can observe how buyer behavior may be used for setting objectives, designing messages and engaging in other managerial decisions.

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MEASUREMENT AND ATTITUDES: DEFINITIONAL, CONCEPTUAL, AND METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

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Introduction

In recent years the marketing profession has become increasingly interested in the measurement of behavior before the consumer reaches the marketplace. These efforts have resulted in the contribution of four volumes of research in the area of attitude and related measurement categories.[2,3,32,54]

Accordingly, this paper will explore a single area of behavioral analysis: that of attitude, its interpretation and measurement. Problems of attitude and measurement will be discussed under the classifications of:

A) over-all measurement considerations
B) the richness of the attitude construct- definitional and conceptual considerations
C) the measurement unit
D) attitude-behavior inconsistency
E) psychological measurement under a multiple operationalism

Over-all Measurement Considerations

The broad aims of consumer psychology under the domain of the social sciences is to understand various social phenomena in terms of meaningful categories of behavior. The social scientist seeks to explain such phenomena by ascribing various "subjective" states to the human (or other organism) actors participating in the process. The significant question that must be answered is whether such attributions involve the use of logical canons which are different from those involved with the attribution of "objective" traits to things in other areas of investigation. One must conclude that even though the participating actors are different (e.g. molecules vs. humans) the sequence of attribution follows the prescribed canons of authoritative evaluations.[42]

The postulated conditions for attributing casuality are readily demonstrable in the "hard" sciences. Conversely, in the softer disciplines the classical model and its properties serve only as a proxy for scientific validation. Its appeal lies in its heuristic capability for imposing convergent validation for social science investigation.

The process of individual differences deserves elaboration. Explanation of behavioral phenomena by reference to motives, needs, objectives, or the like seem legitimate in terms of goal directed, purposive behavior. An explanation of this type would tend to be casual in structure, listing among the casual antecedents of the given action(s), certain purposes or motives on the part of the actor, as well as his beliefs as to the best means available for attaining his goal(s).[34]

Consumer psychology uses the methodology of science to understand, develop, and predict behavior in product choice situations by systematically looking at the human organism as the joint product of two basic factors:

1. stimuli currently impinging upon the sensory receptors of the organism (person)
2. internal states of the organism (all of his acquired behavioral dispositions)

The contributions of each of these factors is "relative" to the type of behavior we are interested in understanding and predicting. While knowledge of local stimulus conditions should significantly add to our capabilities, problems of prediction in life situations can only be of a probabilistic nature.

The Richness of the Attitude Construct

Measurement problems increase as one moves from physical to psychological entities. Whenever these psychological entities are portrayed by "symbolic reconstructions" problems of operationality (definition); measurement (the types of instruments available); and translation (the overlap, or lack of, researcher-subject categories) are manifest in the data.

The conception of attitude as a unifying psychologycal entity for the understanding of consumer choice behavior has paradoxical implications. One finds that it is both the richness and broad dimensionality of the concept which makes it a poor predictor of a specific behavior in isolation. Yet, the concept may be fruitfully used for both an explicit (or implicit) theory of consumer behavior.

The variability of the formal definitions of attitude add to its semantical meaning but subtract from its operational specificity. Among the more formal social psychological definitions are:

"an implicit drive-producing response considered socially significant in the individual's society"[19]
"predispositions to respond in a particular way toward a specified class of objects"[49]
"a syndrome of response consistency with regard to social objects"[13]
"a relatively enduring organization of beliefs about an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner"[46]
"a relatively enduring, transitional hypothetical variable which gives both direction and consistency to a person's responses"[58]

In a marketing context Hustad and Pessemier following the traditional interpretation of the social psychologists define an attitude as: "a learned and enduring predisposition to act."[37] Attitude may be the product of such components as perceptions, beliefs, values, motives and preferences. Similarly, Dunn defines attitude as: "an individuals' readiness modified by experience to make certain responses to stimuli."[20] Attitude is once again considered the product of the emotional states.

Several points of agreement are evident from the above sampling of definitions:

1) Attitudes are intervening or hypothetical variables; as such they are not directly observable and so must be inferred.
2) Attitudes serve as coordinators of behaviors in environments, providing both consistency and direction to behavior.
3) Attitudes are socially significant learned responses.
4) Attitudes are relatively enduring and stable hypothetical structures.
5) Attitudes are residues of past experience.
6) Attitude acquisition revolves around a complex process of learning.
7) Attitude expression varies across environments.
8) Attitudes have both a behavioristic and connotative dimension.[1]

A behavioristist or learning theory approach to attitude formation[19,22,26,28] concludes that the following properties are exhibited by attitudes:

1) As an intervening variable it is both anticipatory and mediating in reference to stimulus patterns of overt responses.
2) It can be evoked by a variety of stimulus--environmental patterns as a result of previous learning--through the process of discrimination or generalization.
3) The attitude itself is both cue and drive producing.
4) An attitude has the stimulus property(s) of both afferent habit strength (the bond between the stimulus pattern and response as a function of previous reinforcement) and efferent habit strength (the bond between the attitude as stimulus and a response pattern).

This learning theoretic approach is consistent with Howard and Sheths'[35] buyer behavior incorporation of the attitude construct. The essential point here is that the stimulus-value of attitude suggests why researchers have discovered so many different phenomena associated with attitude. Since attitude is a learned disposition to respond, then one has to learn the attitude--the appropriate disposition toward a given object or class of objects. But once one has learned the attitude, he must also learn what response to make of it, (i.e., there is no inherent relationship between the attitude and the behavior), thus one has to learn a behavioral response. It follows that people may learn to hold the same attitude toward any given stimulus and at the same time learn to make different responses toward that stimulus. These differing behavioral responses are not inconsistent when associated with the proper stimuli.

The Measurement Unit

Ideally, the index or sign of a conceptualized (abstracted) item stands in a one-to-one correlation with what it signifies. In a theoretical sense, since the index and its object are so related, one may pose the question: What are the grounds on which one is taken as the index and the other as the indexed variable? By definition, the index is that one of the correlated pairs which is perceptible, and the other harder or impossible to perceive is nevertheless the basis for theoretical relevance. Thus, attitude scales make available indices of otherwise not discriminable attitudes, just as ecological statistics represent indices of diverse social structures.[42]

The notion that "measurement" inevitably leaves something out stems from the position that in the behavioral sciences our measures do consistently omit properties and relations which have importance in terms of the conceptual referent within which we see the subject matter.[36]

Measurement has both a narrow and broad conception. In a strict framework measurement consists of the assignment of abstract entities (as numbers) to things in accordance with certain rules. In a broader conceptualization, common to the social sciences: "any classification of a property or configuration as an instance of some clearly defined, but not necessarily quantitative concept is called 'measurement'".[12] This broader usage can be considered an asset when conceived in terms of the researcher's theoretical framework. Although, in extending the meaning to all potential observations requires that we further qualify "measurement" by event class in order to discuss the logical relationships involved.

Serious measurement questions center around the method employed as a basis for attitude inference. Are the indices or scale representative of the attitude continuum? What range and type of inferences are crucial? What is the appropriate metric for measurement? Should we attempt to separate the cognitive and effective properties of attitude or should they be combined?[44]

According to Scott[51] just what other constructs an attitude is to be distinguished from, or assimilated to, depends upon:

1. convention within the discipline--which is currently very loose on the matter
2. the investigator's own theoretical purpose
3. the outcomes of empirical inquiries designed to establish the appropriate distinctions and similarities (p. 205)

Appropriately, the following properties of attitudes have been postulated and less often investigated:

A. Direction (favorable or unfavorable)
B. Magnitude (degree of favorable or unfavorableness)
C. Intensity (strength of feeling)
D. Ambivalence (neutrality dimension)
E. Salience (prominence dimension)
F. Affective-salience (affect-laden attitudes)
G. Cognitive complexity (richness of the cognitive dimension)
H. Overtness (conative--action dimension)
I. Embeddedness (degree of connectedness)
J. Flexibility (change potential)
K. Consciousness (degree of awareness)[2]

To date almost all empirical work by both social and consumer psychologists has been concentrated in the area of magnitude and direction in terms of its appropriate affective properties. Recent translation into attitude--consumer preference typologies conforms to this multi-dimensional framework.[9,37,44,45] This multiple component approach increases the theoretical richness of the construct but diminishes its operationality.

Attitude--Behavior Inconsistency--Environmental Influences

It has been hypothesized that the magnitude of the attitude as a predisposition to respond acts as both a subjective filter from which all information passes through and as a determinant of the remaining decision process.[21,35] Conversely, critics of the attitude construct have often argued that predicted relationships between attitude measurements and subsequent behavior have not held up. In terms of the preceding analysis this criticism is unwarranted. In fact, the real problem stems from a "reification" of a concept that has somehow been established as a special predictor of behavior. The real criticism lies with those who continue to use a single construct (whether an attitude or another intervening variable) for predicting subsequent behaviors in varying environments.

Seen in this context the question of whether attitudes serve to direct behavior or are a modality that confers on behavior a part of its meaning loses much of its significance. Attitude change can follow behavior change, as well as precede behavior change. In neither case is a measured change in one of the variables a necessary and sufficient condition for the attribution of casual change in the other. The correct attribution of an attitude is functionally dependent upon whether its classification as a stimulus is analyzable or not. Whereas, unitary classes of stimuli have largely hidden dimensionality[55] attitude is presumed to be a part of the analyzable classes, even though it is an intervening variable.[12,52]

The key to improving the predictive efficiency, or empirical validity of psychological measures (including attitudes--where there is some a priori or empirical reason for their inclusion) lies in developing conformity between the measurement environment and the criterion environment. We would hope to find that as uniformity of environments similarly converge the greater is the possibility of achieving high empirical validity.[59]

The observation O of a trait T measured in environment E, that is used to predict how this trait T will manifest itself in future behavior in environments F...N, that may be similar or dissimilar to E, depends on the continuity of the situational measures.

The failure to separate attitude-toward-object from attitude-toward-situation (where attitude-toward-situation may be translated in terms of a person's "beliefs" as to the probability or improbability of a relationship between the attitude object and the environmental situation) has further limited the practical uses of the attitude construct. The failure to appreciate the point that an attitude object (A_o) is always encountered within an environmental context about which we have an organized belief(s) has resulted in unsophisticated and theoretically unsound attempts at behavior prediction.[46,4,5,6,7] Recent work suggests that traditional measures of attitudinal affect are better understood when associated with situational determinants (i.e., environmental influences).

The resulting attitude--behavior inconsistency question can be seen in part as a failure to understand this and other more or less subtle implications of the attitude construct. Behavioral manifestations will present themselves along a range of environmental values, rather than a single stimulus value as one moves in and out of situations.

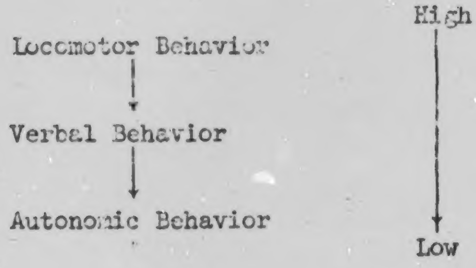
This position adds further recognition to the fact that besides testing for a change in expression toward an attitude across varying situations (which is hardly ever done--as a first step), we should also assess a change in belief(s) toward a situation by varying stimulus objects within a specific situation.

The insufficiency of attributing the presence of an attitude or any other psychological construct from a single index of verbal behavior should be apparent. Further elaborations concern the distinction between opinion and attitude. Although the latter is the variable of interest, which is ultimately measured, often the vehicle for measurement is the opinion. Opinions serve as surrogates for the inferred attitude. Inferences about the "true" attitude based on a series of opinions can only be estimated. In this context, the often assumed isomorphic relationship between a series of opinions and the "true" attitude is dependent upon the relative consistency of the estimates.

Although a reasonably clear distinction can be made between an underlying attitude and an expression of opinion, one consistently finds in the literature a confounding of the two concepts. A single expressed opinion on a subject (in isolation) should probably not be considered indicative of a person's underlying attitude. Even if we have a multiple expression of opinion, other theoretical relations must also be present in order to diagnose the existence of an attitude: (e.g., the person's beliefs; behavioral intentions; affective connection with the attitude object; past behavior in relation to the attitude object; and past and present stimuli.)

Verbal behavior is only a part of a wider set of response consistency. The fact that acquired behavioral dispositions as attitudes are diagnosed through the observation of stimulus-response consistencies (correlations between objects and acts, or between stimuli and responses) does not imply that verbal measures such as self-reports or attitude scales will be consistently coordinated with overt behavior.

As a learning theoretic approach the modes of acquiring behavioral dispositions do not require the antecedent condition of "attitude"--it is the diagnostic symptoms of expression that we seek to examine. We must demonstrate the substitutability and multiple symptomatology of expression--i.e., locomotor behavior; verbal statement of stimulus-response sequences; and verbal descriptions of the environment and objects in it. Schematically the hierarchial framework resembles the following:



(Response Threshold)
(Adapted from Campbell)[13]

The forced reliance upon the practical utility of verbal measures as indicators of some underlying dimension does not mean that better predictions cannot be made. It is suggested that better predictions of consumer choice behavior depends upon incorporating the "other" variable dimension with the attitude construct (e.g., Fishbein, 1965[25], 1966[26], 1967[28]; Wicker, 1969[57], 1971[58]; Pessemier, 1972[44]; Pessemier and Wilkie, 1972[45]; Bass, 1971[9]).

Attitude Inference Under a Multiple Operationalism

For correlations to be established, observations must be made under conditions where S (stimulus) and R (response) are present and absent. In the usual case the researcher starts with a large number of stimuli belonging (so he assumes), to the attitude universe to which the individual should respond. Responses (R) are recorded by the researcher where both S and R are defined in the researcher's terms. By both trial and error and hopefully by the establishment of some S-R correlations, the researcher will recategorize the S-R categories. By recategorization the researcher attempts to improve the predictability of co-occurrences of S and R. The categories are always in the researchers' terms. That is, they are categories that he can discriminate without ever being certain that they correspond to the subjects'.

Schematically:

1. Given the researchers' categories of both:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Stimuli} & \text{and} & \text{Response} \\ S_1 & \longrightarrow & R_1 \\ S_2 & \longrightarrow & R_2 \\ . & & . \\ S_n & \longrightarrow & R_n \end{array}$$

and if there exists "satisfactory" predictability of S-R, which remains after varying:

2. $S_{n+1}, \ldots, S_m$ except $(S_1, \ldots, S_n)$; changing test methods, response environments, stimulus presentation, etc., and

3. $S_{n+1}, \ldots, S_m$ while $(S_1, \ldots, S_n)$; are absent and $(R_1, \ldots, R_n)$ are also absent,

Then the researcher is justified in inferring an attitude construct (i.e., genus)

It follows that for both methodological and theoretical reasons multiple-item assessment is to be preferred over single stimulus items. Single items are subject to large response error; any single item in isolation is bound to reflect attitudes other than the ones the researcher is interested in; any inference from a measure to a psychological construct requires multiple measures.

The total score on a test comprises a "true" attitude component and a composite error component: $x_i = t_i + e_i$. For both attitude and other novel trait measures the classical assumptions of psychometric theory are usually not met (the notion of both trait and methods variance). To the extent that instrument (as well as trait) confounding factors are present, a broader strategy of assessment is required. A variety of procedures that do not share the same method--trait--specific sources of varience are needed (e.g., Campbell and Fiske, 1959[14]; Cattell, 1961[15]; Cook and Sellitz, 1964[16]; Heeler, and Ray, 1972[33]). Specifically, Campbell and Fiske (1959)[14] argue that both convergent and discriminant validity are necessary for the acceptance of measurement validity (and if we are to ever get construct validity). Convergent validity is indicated when maximally independent measurement procedures on the same variable possess high correlations. Conversely, low or zero correlations between independent measurement procedures on theoretically different variables is evidence for discriminent validity. (Note: In practice we hope to find evidence for "relative validity.")[4]

Measure validation of a theoretical construct (e.g., attitude) consists of both convergent and discriminant validation. Both are necessary but not sufficient conditions for the establishment of construct validity. The latter answers the question: Does the hypothetical construct, which may be composed of several levels of concepts, operate in theoretically expected ways?

Accordingly, attitude as a molar response tendency is diagnosed on the basis of stimulus-response consistencies. It is necessary to identify a large network of behaviors to infer the existence of an attitude:

1. respondent self-reports--his behavioral dispositions
2. respondent self-reports--under varying stimulus conditions
3. the observation of respondent's overt behavior(s)
4. symbolic stimulus tests--the reaction to or interpretation of partially structured stimuli which contain the attitude
5. performance of objective tasks designed to get at the mediating attitude
6. physiological reactions to the attitude object
7. respondent scores on scales designed to get at the underlying attitude

Such extensive identification is often operationally impossible to practice. The main purpose of this multiple specification is to provide a basis for investigation.

Multiple Operationalism: Limitations

The multiple operationalism approach encourages a more useful though stricter operational interpretation of attitude (or other qualitative variables). Although substantially better than most approaches certain problems still persist:

a) multiple operationalism represents cross validation on only a limited variable set, ideally all theoretically "other" relevant variables should be considered
b) S-R consistencies are still in terms of the researchers categories as are attitude behavior relationships
c) while it is conceptually more useful to conceive of attitude as multidimensional this does not necessarily add to improved predictability
d) the correlational structure that underlies a multitrait-multimethod approach is limited; application of scaling methodologies should offer a better understanding of the underlying structure
e) competing theories cannot be disproved by using a multiple operationalism; the richness of theory lying mostly in its conceptual fruitfulness.

Summary

The problem of choice behavior lies at the very foundation of consumer psychology. For many researchers the prominence of the attitude construct has rested on the often false assumption of its predictive power in choice situations.

The ultimate criterion for any alleged measure of a psychological variable is the person's locomotor behavior in reference to the focal object. The restrictions placed upon the researcher in practice are insufficient justification for the consistently poor results found in the attitude research area.

An integration and confirmation of multiple approaches is needed. The multiple-connotation of social attitudes as acquired behavioral dispositions appears to be most useful as a heuristic device. By consolidating theoretical inconveniences across disciplines, integration of multiple approaches produces a synthesis and consistency of meaning. Its multiple connotations of response tendencies and view of the world as reflected in its motivational and goal attributes reflects its "main" theoretical and practical asset. To the extent that attitudes have both a behaviorist and cognitive orientation it encompasses a broad range of conceptualization and meaning. This "broadening" mitigates against precise predictive capabilities. However, its predictive power is not at issue here; its unifying structure is.

The search for response consistencies demonstrates that attitudes as learned residues of past experience serve to coordinate behaviors in environments. It becomes the implausible responsibility of the behavioral scientist to diagnose these residues in persons whose prior life histories he can not have observed and whose prior modes of reinforcements he has not seen.

Appendix A

The matrix shows three different traits measured by three methods, for a total of nine separate measures. The reliability of each method in measuring each variable (the use of maximally similar methods) is given by the correlations shown in the parentheses, (r_{ii}) on the main diagonal. The correlations in brackets are the relevant validity diagnoals for each method. The correlations adjacent to the reliability diagonal are titled the heterotrait-monomethod triangles. The remaining correlations are heterotrait-heteromethod triangles.

The requirements for acceptance of measurement validity proposed by Campbell and Fiske are:

1. The entires in the validity diagonal should be significantly different from zero and sufficiently large to encourage further examination of the matrix.
2. A validity diagonal value should be higher than the values lying in its column and row in the heterotrait-heteromethod traingles.
3. For a given variable, the values in the validity diagonal should be higher than its values in the heterotrait-heteromethod triangles.
4. The same pattern of trait interrelationships should be demonstrated in all heterotrait-triangles.

The first requirement provides evidence of convergent validity, while the last three measures provide evidence of discriminant validity. This means that if we are to accept as valid, measures of psychological variables (discriminant validity) more than one trait and more than one method must be employed in the validation process (e.g., if we are to accept a measure of attitude as valid (a verbal score) we must compare it with another independent method designed to get at that particular attitude). The restrictions imposed by this methodology are ultimately designed to improve predictive accuracy.

TABLE 1

Multitrait-Multimethod Matrix

	Method 1			Method 2			Method 3		
Trait	A_1	B_1	C_1	A_2	B_2	C_2	A_3	B_3	C_3
A_1	(r_{11})								
B_1	r_{21}	(r_{22})							
C_1	r_{31}	r_{32}	(r_{33})						
A_2	[r_{41}]	r_{42}	r_{43}	(r_{44})					
B_2	r_{51}	[r_{52}]	r_{53}	r_{54}	(r_{55})				
C_2	r_{61}	r_{62}	[r_{63}]	r_{64}	r_{65}	(r_{66})			

TABLE 1 (con't)

	Method 1			Method 2			Method 3		
Trait	A_1	B_1	C_1	A_2	B_2	C_2	A_3	B_3	C_3
A_3	[r_{71}]	r_{72}	r_{73}	[r_{74}]	r_{75}	r_{76}	(r_{77})		
B_3	r_{81}	[r_{82}]	r_{83}	r_{84}	[r_{85}]	r_{86}	r_{87}	(r_{88})	
C_3	r_{91}	r_{92}	[r_{93}]	r_{94}	r_{95}	[r_{96}]	r_{97}	r_{98}	(r_{99})

Footnotes

1. See Campbell, D. T., Social Attitudes and Other Acquired Behavioral Dispositions, 1963, for a detailed discussion of the perceptual and behavioristic dimensions of the attitude construct.
2. See Scott, W. A., Attitude Measurement, 1968, for a more detailed discussion.
3. See McGuire, W. J., The Nature of Attitudes and Attitude Change for a more detailed discussion.
4. Appendix A illustrates and discusses a sample multitrait-multimethod matrix for the measurement of qualitative variables.

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THE TEACHING OF ADVERTISING FOR NON-MARKETING MAJORS

by

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In developing an advertising curriculum some of the courses may be designed to service special groups of students. When advertising is taught within a business school, the potential students fall into one of three categories: 1) marketing majors, 2) non-marketing majors, and 3) non-degree seeking special students. In developing an advertising course the type of students to be enrolled in the course and the objective of the students as well as the theory and practice form the foundation for planning the course. The marketing major normally has one of two objectives in taking the course: 1) as a foundation leading to a career in advertising and this is the first of many courses in advertising to be taken, or 2) as an element of the marketing educational mix in which advertising is viewed as one of the tools available to management. The non-marketing major generally elects the course due to an interest in knowing how to manage advertising as a tool rather than a desire to actually plan, develop and implement a campaign. The non-degree seeking students are often motivated by a desire to learn how to apply advertising techniques in an activity or enterprise with which they are involved.

The course designed for the marketing major pursuing a career in advertising would be oriented to the development, implementation and control of the advertising campaign. Heavy emphasis would come in the area of design and actual construction of the campaign. The courses designed to meet the needs of the management oriented and special students would be different based on the audience needs.

Two advertising courses which were designed to meet such special needs are described below. The first was designed for business graduate students who would be taking only one advertising course and who would be involved in the management not the design and development of advertising campaigns. This course has been offered and taught. The second course was designed for non-degree seeking special students who are employed by non-profit and public sector agencies and institutions. This course will be offered in the 1974-1975 academic year.

Advertising Management for MBAs

The purpose of this course is to acquaint students with advertising as a tool of management. The course objectives include:

1) Development of an understanding of advertising as a part of a firm's total marketing and promotional mix.
2) Identification of the situations in which advertising may be used to help successfully implement a company program.
3) Identification of the situations in which the use of advertising as a management tool would be ineffective.

4) Appreciation of the cost-efficiency relationship involved in the utilization of advertising.
5) Development of an understanding of the absolute and relative effectiveness measures available for evaluation of advertising efforts.

Each student is assumed to have had a basic marketing management course though no previous formal education in advertising. Students generally enter the course with many of the folk tales and media myths which surround the general public's understanding of advertising. The development of the major course topics was based on these assumptions.

Course Syllabus: Major Topics

In structuring the course syllabus the emphasis is on management of advertising. But, since an appreciation of the development aspects of the advertising effort is also desirable, it is also included in the outline which follows. The course is built on a schedule of fourteen 105-minute class sessions. The course syllabus major topics are presented in Exhibit I.

Teaching Materials and Techniques

Students are required to read selected chapters from Wright, Warner and Winter. Additional readings are assigned for each of the five major topic sections from periodicals and newspapers. The class is also asked to read Advertising Age. In class teaching techniques include the use of lectures, films, slides and case situations. The class, which averages around 42 students, is divided into six company groups. Each group is required to develop an advertising plan involving necessary management decisions as well as actual campaign planning and development. The members in each group staff the respective jobs they feel must be done and also set the basis for line and staff relationships. Each supervisor in the group is responsible for the subordinates under his direction. Half of the groups are assigned an advertising management problem relating to an industrial products firm and the remaining groups an advertising management problem relating to a consumer products firm. The instructor assumes the role of president of the firms and meets, upon request, with the individual groups. Management personnel within each group are required to attend management meetings held every two weeks. Group performance is evaluated on a competitive basis. The highest rated industrial and consumer advertising plans are presented to the class as a whole at the final class meeting of the semester. In addition to the project, a final examination is given which consists of twelve situation questions. Each question requires the student to make a management decision relating to advertising and then to support the decision. The situations are drawn from current events in the market place which require advertising management decisions. Throughout the semester, case illustrations are presented in class by selected class members.

The project and examination form have both received high evaluations as learning techniques from a significant majority, 91 percent, of the students enrolled in the class. The two main drawbacks associated with the course are: 1) heavy required reading load; and 2) time requirements outside of class for both students and instructor as related to the group project.

The main benefits of the course are: 1) student identification of some of the real problems facing advertising management, 2) student enthusiasm for

Exhibit I

ADVERTISING MANAGEMENT FOR MBAs
COURSE SYLLABUS: MAJOR TOPICS

I. THE ENVIRONMENT OF ADVERTISING

Class 1 Advertising As A Management Tool
--The Function of Advertising in the Organization
--Relationship of Advertising to Other Organizational Activities

Class 2 The External Environment of Advertising
--The Economic Environment
--The Social Environment
--The Legal Environment
--The Competitive Environment

II. BACKGROUND INFORMATION FOR MANAGEMENT DECISIONS

Class 3 The Target Audience
--Defining Target Markets
--Consumer Attitudes Toward and Reaction to Advertising
--Management's Attitude Toward and Reaction to Advertising

Class 4 Communication Theory
--The Communication Process
--Changing Attitudes Through Communication
--Modification of the System for Special Situations

III. INITIAL MANAGEMENT DECISIONS

Class 5 Development and Selection of Objectives
--Problem Identification and Situation Analysis
--Formulation of Objectives Based on Company Objectives
--Classifications of Advertising Suitable for Use with Objectives

Class 6 Appropriation and Budgeting
--Determining the Advertising Appropriation
--Developing the Advertising Budget
--Controlling the Advertising Budget

Class 7 Determining Responsibility for Campaign Development
--Use of In-House Groups
--Use of External Agencies
--Use of a Combination of In-House Group and Agencies
--Evaluation of the Alternatives on an Expertise/Cost/Efficiency Basis

Exhibit I (continued)

IV. CAMPAIGN DEVELOPMENT

Class 8	The Management and Creative Team --The Role of the Account Supervisor/Executive --The Role of the Copywriter --Coordination of Planning with Management Representatives Outside the Advertising Group
Class 9	Development of the Basic Campaign --Local/Regional and National Campaigns --Consumer, Industrial and Institutional Campaigns
Class 10	Basic Campaign (continued) --The Copy Outline --Elements of Copy Structure
Class 11	The Media Combination --Media Characteristics --The Media Combination --Media Buying

V. EVALUATING THE CAMPAIGN

Class 12	Pre-Testing and Post-Testing --Benefits and Limitations of Pre-Testing --Benefits and Limitations of Post-Testing --Absolute versus Relative Effectiveness Evaluations
Class 13	Introduction of the Campaign --Importance of Timing --Desired Response from Other Company Units --Initial Reactions from the Market
Class 14	Presentation of Top Group Projects

the final examination which presents a management problem requiring a decision and support of that decision; 3) keen sense of competition that develops among the project groups; and 4) instructor's increased awareness of various facets of advertising management.

Advertising Management in Non-Profit and Public Institutions

The purpose of this course is to acquaint individuals working in non-profit and public agencies and institutions with advertising as it is uniquely related to their needs. The course objectives include:

1) Development of a procedure for recognizing, identifying and selecting those advertising techniques best suited to use in non-profit and public agencies and institutions.
2) Identification of the differences between the applications of advertising in their undertakings as compared to a marketer of convenience goods.
3) Understanding of the different psychological reactions that the public agencies and institutions "idea" orientation as compared to the reaction toward commercial products or services.
4) Identification of advertising's value as part of a well planned and developed promotional mix, even when total effort is small.
5) Development of a procedure to assign a value to the various jobs advertising can do and evaluation of the cost and benefit.
6) Identification of special advertising services available to their type of operation from profit-generating firms.

Each student is assumed to be working in either a non-profit or public agency or institution and is not necessarily assumed to have had a basic marketing management course. The course topics were selected with this qualification in mind.

Course Syllabus: Major Topics

In structuring the course syllabus the major emphasis is on the application of advertising to meet the special needs of non-profit and public agencies and institutions. The course is built on a schedule of fourteen 105-minute class sessions. The course syllabus is presented in Exhibit II.

Teaching Materials and Techniques

Students will be required to read selected chapters from advertising texts by Kleppner, Mandell, and Wright, Warner and Winter. In addition, publications of the American Association of Advertising Agencies and readings from selected periodicals will also be assigned. In class teaching techniques will include lectures, films, slides, and guest speakers. Emphasis is on the application of techniques under varying agency situations and objectives. A key consideration will be the monetary constraints faced by non-profit and public agencies and institutions and how these constraints may be met while still developing and implementing an effective advertising campaign.

During the course, four case presentations, designed to utilize ideas and concepts developed in the course, will be undertaken by students. Each of the cases have been or will be developed under the direction of the course designer and lecturer. Three of the four will be submitted by the students as written case solutions after presentation in class. Individual semester projects will be assigned. Each student will be asked to develop an advertising plan for their agency or institution which will help achieve a current objective of the group. The student will be assisted in the selection of the project, its nature, depth and scope through individual counseling. The

Exhibit II

ADVERTISING MANAGEMENT IN NON-PROFIT AND PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS
COURSE SYLLABUS: MAJOR TOPICS

I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Class 1
Advertising as a Tool of Management
--Advertising in the Profit Oriented Corporation
--Advertising in the Non-Profit and Public Agency or Institution

Class 2
Consumer Attitudinal Research
--The Attitudes of Consumers Toward Products/Services Offered by Commercial Firms
--The Attitudes of Consumers Toward Programs Offered by Non-Profit and Public Agencies and Institutions
The Communication Process
--The Traditional Communication Process
--Modified Communication Process for Non-Profit and Public Institutional Advertising

II. DEVELOPMENT AND MANAGEMENT OF THE ADVERTISING PLAN

Class 3
Assigning Responsibility for the Advertising Plan
--Using an In-House Group
--Using an External Advertising Agency
--Utilizing the Advertising Council

Class 4
Determining the Appropriation and Budget
--Working within Monetary Constraints
--Identifying Sources of Non-Paid Assistance
Case Presentation #1

Class 5
Development of Advertising Plan Objectives
--Use of Advertising to Raise Money
--Use of Advertising to Get Personal Involvement
--Use of Advertising to Communicate Information to Those Who Can Benefit From the Program

Class 6
Objectives (continued)
--Use of Advertising to Communicate Information to the General Public About a Voluntary Program
--Use of Advertising to Communicate Information to the General Public About a Mandatory Program

Class 7
Objectives (continued)
--Use of Advertising to Change Attitudes
Case Presentation #2

Class 8
Development of the Copy Outline and Structure
--Copy Structure Elements
--Copy Style

Exhibit II (continued)

Class 9	Outline and Structure (continued) --Illustration --Layout --Production
Class 10	Media Planning and Buying --Characteristics of Media Case Presentation #3
Class 11	Planning and Buying (continued) --Suitability of Media to Campaign Objective --Free versus Paid Placement
Class 12	Case Presentation #4
	III. EVALUATION OF THE RESULTS
Class 13	Evaluation of the Advertising Results --Techniques Available --Interpretation of Results --Use of Results in Future Planning
Class 14	Presentation of Selected Individual Projects

* * *

semester project combined with the three written case solutions will represent the course requirements. Given the nature of the diverse backgrounds of the students and their special needs, no examinations will be given. The majority of the students are expected to come from governmental agencies and organized non-profit agencies headquartered in New York City.

The perceived benefits of the course are expected to be: 1) development of a better understanding of how advertising can be used by non-profit and public agencies and institutions; 2) improvement in the type of advertising developed and utilized by non-profit and public agencies and institutions whose representatives are involved in the course, 3) communication by students who have completed the course to others in their agencies as to the role and use of advertising; and 4) the possible development by the instructor, of a book on the application of advertising in the non-profit and public agency or institution.

The overall objective of offering special advertising courses is to improve understanding of the role of advertising in various settings and situations. In both courses, the emphasis is on management of the advertising process as a beneficial tool for achieving objectives.

THE ADVERTISING COOPERATIVE TRAINING PROGRAM AT BARUCH COLLEGE, CUNY

by
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A few years ago a new President was appointed at Baruch College. He came to us from the southwest, from Texas, and wasn't familiar with our program and curricula. Consequently a number of us were asked to brief him. I described our Advertising Cooperative Training Program to him and I ended it by jocularly stating that if we continued to place students at Ted Bates at the rate we had been, we would "own" the agency in a short time. While this was a slight exaggeration, we did--and we do have a large number of our present and former students in the Bates media department.

Originally the title of this paper has been "The Advertising Cooperative Training Program at CUNY." I modified it, adding the name of Baruch College which is the only college of Business in the City University authorized to grant the B.B.A., M.B.A. and Ph.D. in Advertising. However, CUNY Community Colleges do offer courses in Business and Advertising as do some of the other City University 4-year colleges. Incidentally, Baruch College has the distinction of housing the largest school of Business in the United States--and probably in the world.

We had been the School of Business of City College, or CCNY, which dates back to 1847. Baruch became a separate college in 1968 with a school of business and one of liberal arts. A school of education was established more recently.

The Advertising Training Program goes back a long way, to well before Baruch became a separate college. In fact it is one of several such cooperative training programs traditionally conducted by the Department of Marketing, of which the advertising specialization is an integral part. Within the Marketing Department there are also Training Programs in Retailing, sales and Sales Management, International Trade, Real Estate, and Insurance. In addition to the Co-op training offered by the Marketing Department are similar programs conducted by the Departments of Economics and Finance, Management, and Statistics. Mention should also be made of Student Teaching, a related course, offered by our Department of Education. Similar courses are found in most education curricula since they are generally a pre-requisite to obtaining a teaching certificate or license.

Course Content

The principal portion of the course is the practical work experience segment consisting of a minimum of 20 hours each week during the semester, along with the regular academic program. Sometimes, as is the practice with Ted Bates, students for the Fall semester are hired in June and work full-time during the few weeks they have in June and all of July and August. This way they are seasoned "old hands" by the time September rolls around and they go into the part-time schedule.

The formal part of the Advertising Cooperative Training Program takes place in the classroom. The class meets once a week and is conducted as a seminar. I schedule 15 guest speakers each semester from all phases of advertising, including agencies, the media trade associations, government, supporting industries, and advertisers. While Juniors and Seniors are allowed unlimited "cuts" at our college, I insist upon attendance because of the limited number of times we meet and the small size of the class, approximately 12 to 15. It is more or less a "gentleman's agreement."

The students are expected to participate in discussions. They are also required to submit a detailed paper describing the operation of the firm for which they work and showing the part they play in it. In some classes I also assign a project or case problem. At the end of the semester a rating sheet is turned in to me, for each student, by his or her on-the-job supervisor. (See Appendix A)

Up until two years ago grading was based on the traditional A, B, C system. However, because the major part of the program was off-campus and students were being rated by different indidivuals with widely varying standarts it was decided to go on to a Pass-Fail basis.

Prior to the time that I took over the supervision of the Course, for classroom attendance, the students were required to dress--the men had to wear ties and jackets and the girls, dresses. The rationale was a good one--since they were going out into the business world they had to dress like business people. However, my feeling was that they would have to conform soon enough to these restraints and limitations on our freedom, and I allow them to wear their jeans in class, like the rest of the student body. On the job though, they are expected to conform to the requirements of their employers and the practices of their industry. The practicality of my theory of leniency has been borne out many times. Whenever we have a career conference or employers come to interview prospective employees at the college, the students appear voluntarily in "formal" attire. Often the difference is like day and night.

Requirements for Enrollment

As stated earlier, the course is limited to 12 to 15 students. Each must have a superior grade score and be a senior with a major in Advertising. He or she is also required to have completed a minimum of 8 hours in the specialization, and have an advertising or public relations job prior to the start of class. In addition, each must have the permission of the instructor.

One of the prime limitations to enrollment is the availability of appropriate training jobs. Up until two years ago the job market was good and I was able to place 16 students in advertising related positions with comparative ease. While the situation is improving somewhat, it has not eased up sufficiently. For that reason I admit students to the course who have been able to find appropriate jobs on their own, providing that they meet most of the other requirements. In these situations I may allow flexibility in the Senior requirement. That is, if a student has achieved Junior status and has completed 8 semester hours in the Advertising major, I will allow him to enroll. In other cases I may also relax the grade point requirement where a student has shown enough initiative and perseverance to get himself an acceptable advertising trainee position in this tough job market.

Types of Trainee Positions

There is no denying the fact that being physically located in New York City is a decided advantage principally because of the proximity to practically all of the major advertising agencies.

Most of our students who work for the larger agencies are employed as trainees in media research. In smaller agencies some work in the traffic department, others are jacks-of-all-trades, and some even write copy and assist in the management of accounts.

Not all of our students are employed by advertising agencies, however. Some work for the media and others are employed by related services. One student is a trainee in print production at a letter press shop. Another is an assistant to the manager of a local radio station and yet another is learning to be a rewrite man for United Press International.

While we do have the advantage of being located in New York we also have to compete for spots with a number of local major educational institutions (Columbia, New York University, Fordham, Manhatten, Long Island University, Pratt, Cooper Union, Pace, N.Y. Institute of Technology, to name a few) plus a host of Community colleges. This should indicate that a cooperative advertising program like ours could be implemented at practically any educational institution in any part of the country. For what small town does not have a printer, a local newspaper, and possibly a manufacturer or retail establishment with an advertising department? And generally there is a radio or TV station not too far away.

Guest Speakers

After obtaining jobs for the students the next most important task for the course supervisor is arranging the program and scheduling guest speakers well in advance. However, experience has shown that while it is relatively easy to get good qualified guest speakers it is difficult to schedule them beyond four weeks. Since the semester runs for 15 weeks I make my calls to prospective speakers on a progressive basis.

Even scheduling on a four-week basis is sometimes hazardous. Being active business people a speaker will be called out of town on occasion. I then have to replace him or her at the last moment. For this purpose I keep a list of real close friends and "family"--members of the college staff and/or faculty who perform public relations or advertising related functions. Among these are the Director of College Relations and his staff, as well as members of our adjunct or part-time faculty who have full-time positions in Advertising. I also invite former students, graduates of the program, who are in the field. Others I am able to call upon on short notice are clients whom I serve as a consultant and former colleagues with whom I worked when I was a full-time member of the advertising and public relations professions.

Advertising agencies, advertising departments, media, advertising associations, government regulatory agencies, public relations organization, printing firms and other advertising and communications related companies serve as the principal sources for guest speakers.

Most people asked to speak to a college class are honored by the request. Very rarely does a prospective guest reject the offer or the opportunity to make an appearance. Often, too, speakers actually volunteer their services. Generally, however, these offers do not come from individuals. Many organizations and associations have speakers bureaus. Principal among these, as far as advertising is concerned, are the Specialty Advertising Association International (SAA) and the DMMA, the Direct Mail Marketing Association. In New York the marketing department of the telephone company sends a speaker to colleges within the state, scheduled by arrangement, to tout the merits of the Yellow Pages as an advertising medium.

Another source of speakers that can be readily tapped is the staff of firms or organizations that are already cooperating in the training program. Often the students themselves recommend their supervisors or other professionals they feel can make a contribution to the course.

To make the presentation less formidable for the guest, although most are seasoned speakers and accustomed to speaking before an audience, I put him at his ease and tell him that the class is completely informal and that he can even sit on the desk if he likes. I let him know that he does not have to prepare a lecture or even have notes. All he has to do is tell the class about his job--what he does. As for the format of his presentation that is up to him. He doesn't have to talk for more than 30 minutes and the balance of the 50-minute class can be taken up with answering questions from the students or discussing and enlarging on certain points with them. Or if he prefers, the speaker may field questions as they come up. For those speakers who require 16mm projectors, tape recorders or other audio-visual equipment I ask them to let me know in advance so that I can have them available at the time that they are needed.

I try to keep an active list of potential speakers so that we do not have a repeat performance during any given 12-month period. Although our advertising training Co-op is designed to run for one semester some students are allowed to participate in the program for a full year, and I do my best to avoid duplications of speakers.

At this point I think it is important to let you know that we do not schedule a speaker for every class. During the first session each student introduces himself and describes his job and the firm for which he works. Two or three times a year we also take field trips. One trip might consist of a visit to the set of a television film production company to observe the making of a commercial for a nationally advertised product or service. Another field trip might take us to an exhibit such as the one that Burlington Mills has in its headquarters building near Rockerfeller Center. It is a complete mock-up of a textile mill in operation. Following the tour the public relations staff takes us behind the scenes, describes the operation, and answer questions.

A Typical Session

This semester the class is scheduled on Tuesdays at 1:00 P.M. Last year it was on Fridays at 11:00 A.M. The day of the week has never seemed to have an effect upon enrollment, student attendance, or the availibility of speakers Apparently the students are able to schedule their other academic courses and their on-the-job programs around it without difficulty. And the speakers are flexible.

I begin the session with a brief introduction of the speaker. I waste little or no time with administrative details and the class is small enough so that I can tell who is absent without calling the roll. If the speaker will be talking about a technical phase of advertising with which the students may not be overly familiar, I explain it or I might ask the speaker to go into greater detail. At any rate I turn the class over to him as quickly as possible. In most cases, however, I serve as moderator particularly during the question and answer period.

A typical speaker is Ray Bimonte, a vice president and creative director of Compton Advertising Inc. I am a consultant to Compton Advertising and Ray was glad to accept my offer to speak to the class. He talked about the creation of a 30-second commercial for Johnson & Johnson's No More Tangles Creme Rinse for children. The commercial, a Clio award winner, featured a little, tow-headed five-year girl, who told how she used to cry when her mother tried to comb her tangled hair after shampooing. But now that Johnson & Johnson invented No More Tangles, she went on, she is spared that torture.

The speaker then showed the actual commercial and opened the floor to questions. Quite often sessions, such as this one, overflow into the next hours.

Other typical speakers are Monroe Newell of Lee's Advertising Specialties. Monroe is an alumnus of City College and gives a sparkling talk to the class on specialty advertising. Another alumnus is an executive with Marden Kane and he conducts a sweepstake in the class and gives out worthwhile prizes.

Feedback

One of the important by-products thrown off by the program is the feedback we get. This is a doubled pronged benefit because we get it from both sides--from the employers as well as from our students.

How are we doing as an educational institution? Are our students properly prepared? Are they bringing you the skills and knowledge you require? These are some of the questions we get answered by industry.

From the students' point of view we learn whether or not they feel they are ready for the careers for which they are preparing themselves. We also get opinions as to the relevance of the courses we offer and their content. In this way we would also get the word on which course or courses we offer, are superfluous or unnecessary, if any, and which course or courses we should add to the curriculum.

Data from the employers is usually gathered by the instructor during actual visits to their places of business. Most of the opinions and suggestions come out during informal conversation. Student feedback is also informal for the most part; however, during the last session of class each student is given the opportunity to express himself concerning the Cooperative Training Program, the Advertising Specialization, the offerings of the Marketing Department, the School of Business, the entire College, and his place of employment.

The Instructor

Essentially, the instructor should be a professional--in the field of advertising as well as academically. He should have been employed on a responsible, full-time basis in advertising and he should have the requisite academic degrees. In addition he should have taught all or most of the courses offered in the advertising specialization and be thoroughly conversant with the rest of them.

It is his job to select the students to participate in the program. He also has the more formidable task of lining up suitable jobs for the trainees. This takes a great deal of time and effort, but more important it requires a wide acquaintanceship in the field. They must be contacted and followed up with personal visits, telephone calls, and letters.

Once the program is underway the contact must be continued, first to check on the progress of the student presently on the job and secondly to make way for a successor next semester or next year. In those cases where students remain in the same job following graduation, they often call me to send up a student trainee to succeed them when they have been promoted.

Another instructor responsibility, as outlined earlier, is the task of lining up and arranging for guest speakers and field trips. He is also required to submit formal reports to the college.

Because of all the "leg work" and administrative detail, the college credits the instructor with one semester hour in his teaching load for each four students enrolled in the training program. On this basis my typical class of 16 has a teaching load value of four semester hours.

Conclusion

By this time the benefits of the program should be obvious:

Studentsget practical, paid work experience that enable them to ease into jobs following graduation.

The Advertising Specialization, the Marketing Department, the School of Business, and the College get valuable feedback from a number of sources.

Industry has a pool of partially trained workers to draw upon to fill part-time jobs.

The instructor maintains his contacts in the field and is able to keep up with the latest developments.

APPENDIX A

BARUCH COLLEGE
The City University of New York
Department of Marketing
17 Lexington Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10010

* * * * * * * * *

Employer's Report On Work of Cooperative Advertising Training Student

Company ______________________________

Address ______________________________

____

____

There follows a report, completed to the best of our ability, on the record of Student Trainee ______________________________

SIMPLY CHECK EACH FACTOR. NO PERCENTAGE RATINGS NECESSARY.

	Superior	Good	Fair	Poor
Mental Alertness				
Interest in Job				
Application to Job				
Work Attitude				
Integrity				
Relation with Employees				
Appearance				
Personality				
Other ______________				

ADDITIONAL COMMENT

We hope to keep this student in our permanent employ: Yes____ No____

We do not feel the student is equipped for the type of work now being performed: Why? ______________________________

____

We recommend that this student seek work in the field of: ______________________________

____

Other comment which will help us aid the student find his proper job?

____

____

____

____

Date ______________ Reported by ______________________________

APPENDIX B

Name
Address
Telephone
Class Credits to date Credits end present term
Specialization card Advt. creditis end present term

TIME SCHEDULE

Hour	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8:00 - 9:00					
9:00 -10:00					
10:00 -11:00					
11:00 -12:00					
1:00 - 5:00					

WORK SCHEDULE

If working - Name of employer
Name of immediate superior
Work address
Telephone
Type of work or department

Baruch College - CUNY
Advt. 320/321

The Bernard M. Baruch
College - CUNY

Student Cooperative Training Program Assignments

Field of ______________________________

Semester ____________ Year ______________

Student	Class Standing	Employer	Hours per Week	Hourly Wages	Immediate Supervisor

____
Signature of Coordinator

3/70

APPENDIX C

FIELD CONSULTING IN PROMOTION: SOME FRUSTRATIONS IN THE TEACHING OF A NEW COURSE IN ADVERTISING

by
J. PATRICK KELLY
Assistant Professor of Marketing
Virginia Commonwealth University

Purpose of the Paper

This paper describes the frustrations, anxieties and what appeared to be the eventual success in teaching for the first time a new course in advertising contained within a new curriculum for a new marketing department. The course title is 'Field Consulting in Promotion' and is offered each Fall semester in the Marketing Department at Virginia Commonwealth University. Briefly, the course provides an opportunity for a number of students to act as an advertising agency for a local Richmond firm. The students conduct research, design the campaign, and actually implement the proposed campaign.

These experiences are presented in hopes of limiting the frustrations of other individuals who are contemplating the addition of a similar course to their existing curriculum or to those given the responsibility of teaching an existing course of similar design for the first time.

Background

To provide an adequate understanding of the reason for the existence of this course, a succinct background of the rational behind the complete curriculum may be helpful. Virginia Commonwealth University was created in 1968 through a merger of the Medical College of Virginia and the Richmond Professional Institute to become an urban university with the goal of serving the needs of students through creative and varied programs oriented to improving the quality of life within this and other urban communities. Although a few courses in marketing were offered prior to 1971, the Marketing Department as such came into existence during the 1971-72 academic year. (The Department of Advertising left the School of Business in the Fall of 1973 to join the School of Arts and Sciences as the Department of Mass Communications.) With the new department came an unusual opportunity and challenge; that is, the development of a new curriculum completely from scratch to fit both the needs of the students and to fulfill the goals of the University.

The recognition of the formidable task at hand was obvious from the beginning. There were a number of questions to be answered such as: How could the past experience of others be incorporated into the improvement of marketing education? How could the frequently overworked concept of relevance be included without losing sight of the need to teach both the tools and the tradition of marketing disciplines? What could be done to encourage students to look upon their marketing education as a beginning rather than the end of their intellectual maturity in marketing? How could concentrated areas of study be tailored to fulfill the students' interests and career aspirations? And finally, how could the perceived gap between "academic" and "real world" marketing be bridged in the structuring of courses?

Using questions such as these as guides, a number of specific objectives for the new curriculum were established. Briefly, these objectives provided an atmosphere for learning conducive to self-teaching rather than memorization, learning about the disciplines outside the classroom as well as within; and taking the skills learned in the classroom and applying them to real world experience whenever possible. These objectives were used as the rational behind the construction of a curriculum model. That model is presented as Figure 1. Although this paper deals with one course from the model, Bus. 470 (Field Consulting in Promotion), it was felt an understanding of the complete model was necessary.

Curriculum Model

The model in Figure 1 represents the marketing portion of the four-year program that VCU marketing students take. In addition, all marketing majors take liberal arts and "core" business course selections consistent with AACSB criteria, along with a number of electives. For the marketing major, there are a minimum of 27 semester hours in marketing, plus the Introduction to Marketing course which is part of the School of Business "core curriculum." Only nine of the hours required must be fulfilled with specific courses; all other courses within the model are electives.

Typically the student enters the strands sections (center portion) during the junior year. The student may choose to emphasize one of the four strands (promotional, research/behavioral, retail emphasis, or societal) or the student may choose to work the model totally from a "generalist" standpoint, selecting courses from each strand.

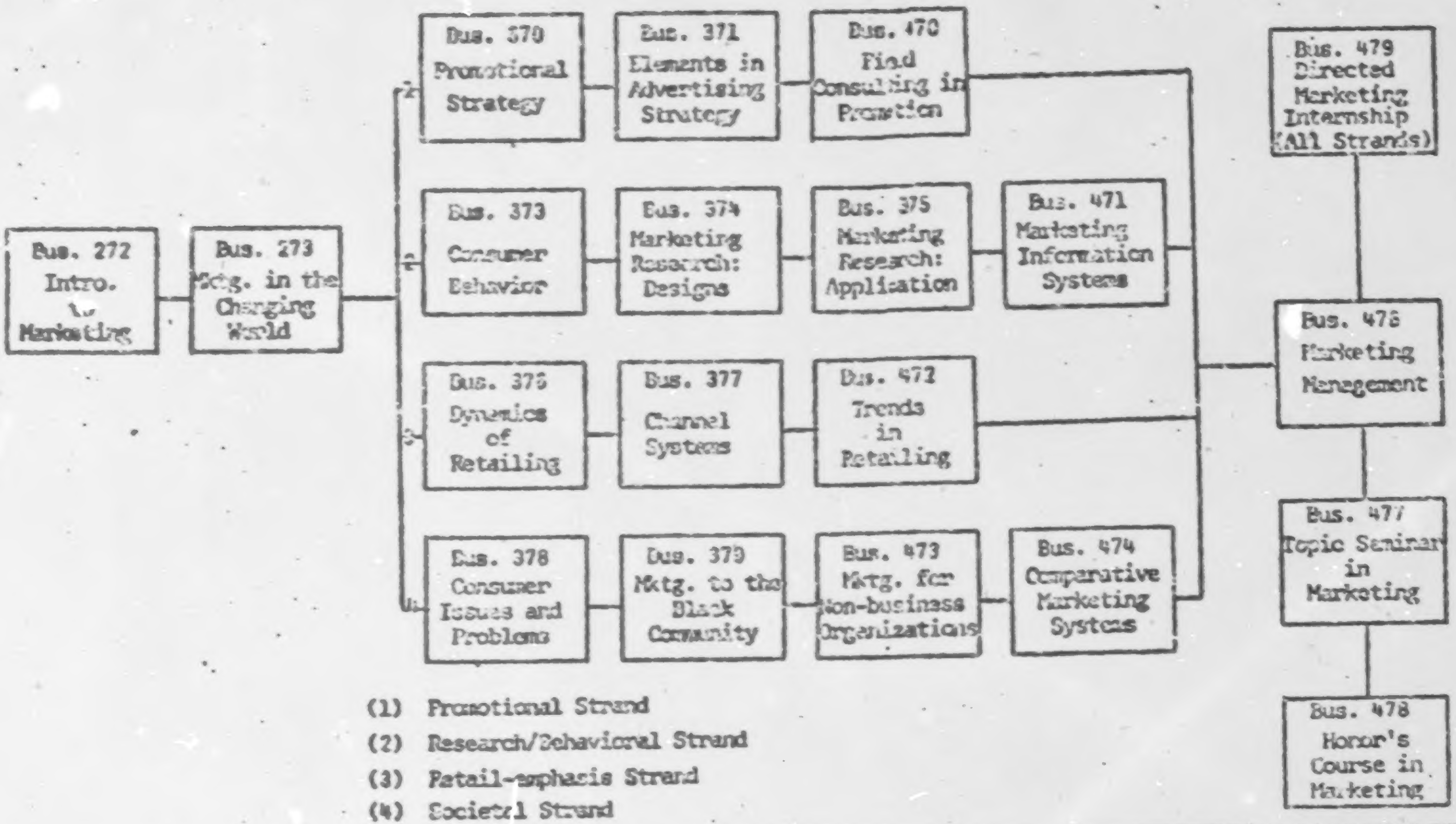
If the student chooses to specialize in a particular strand, there is one course in each strand designed to provide the "real world" experience discussed earlier. If the student chooses the promotional strand, the real world applications course is Field Consulting in Promotion. If the student chooses the research/behavioral strand, the course is Marketing Research: Application, in which the student conducts in-the-field the research designed in Marketing Research: Designs. If the student chooses the retailing strand, he typically works with a retailer in Trends in Retailing in addition to classroom instruction. And finally, if the student chooses the societal strand, the field course is the design and implementation of a marketing plan for a non-business organization such as the Salvation Army, Planned Parenthood, and so on.

In addition to the "real world" courses in each strand, the student may also choose to work in a related field in the Directed Marketing Internship course (top right of model). This course provides for approximately 300 hours of on-the-job training in an area selected by the student.

Even though the curriculum model became operational during the Fall of 1972, the Field Consulting in Promotion course was not offered until the Fall of 1973. This allowed students to matriculate through both Bus. 370 (Promotional Strategy) and Bus. 371 (Elements of Advertising Strategy) before taking the field course.

NEW MARKETING CURRICULUM MODEL

UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAM


Bus. 272 Intro. to Marketing
Bus. 273 Mktg. in the Changing World
1
2
3
4
Bus. 370 Promotional Strategy
Bus. 371 Elements in Advertising Strategy
Bus. 470 Field Consulting in Promotion
Bus. 373 Consumer Behavior
Bus. 374 Marketing Research: Designs
Bus. 375 Marketing Research: Application
Bus. 471 Marketing Information Systems
Bus. 376 Dynamics of Retailing
Bus. 377 Channel Systems
Bus. 472 Trends in Retailing
Bus. 378 Consumer Issues and Problems
Bus. 379 Mktg. to the Black Community
Bus. 473 Mktg. for Non-business Organizations
Bus. 474 Comparative Marketing Systems
Bus. 479 Directed Marketing Internship (All Strands)
Bus. 476 Marketing Management
Bus. 477 Topic Seminar in Marketing
Bus. 478 Honor's Course in Marketing
(1) Promotional Strand
(2) Research/Behavioral Strand
(3) Retail-emphasis Strand
(4) Societal Strand

- 6 hours required	- 18 hours required	- 6 hours required
- Both courses required	- All elective courses	- Mktg. Mgmt. required
- 200 level (sophomore)	- 368 - 475 level (junior-senior)	- 475 - 499 level (senior)

The catalog description of Field Consulting in Promotion states the course is designed to allow students to "apply their knowledge in marketing and promotion to the resolution of an actual advertising problem facing a Richmond firm." With this course description as a guide, the course structure has developed. The full intent was to select a firm, conduct sufficient research to identify the problems and guide the students in designing the campaign, purchase the media, place the advertising and evaluate the results. Simple as a textbook approach, yet the real world provided a number of valuable frustrations--valuable in that they were excellent learning vehicles. The major frustrations are discussed below.

Problems in Implementation

Selection of a Client or Clients

Before asking a firm's cooperation in the course, it was felt advisable that three requirements be fulfilled. First, the firm should not presently be utilizing the services of an advertising agency. Second, the firm should be of sufficient size to allow for a potential advertising budget of manageable proportions. And finally, that the firm be willing to work with a student agency in the development of an advertising campaign and to actually place the campaign the students design.

After attemping to locate a cooperating firm through such organizations as the Chamber of Commerce, Downtown Businessmen's Association, the Central Richmond Association, etc., without any success, the author turned to his own religious, civic and business associates for help. Finally, two firms were located and both indicated a willingness to cooperate. The first was a savings and loan with five offices in Richmond and the second was a surplus and salvage grocery retailer. The latter has two stores selling a full line of grocery products as well as appliances, bedding and furniture. The advertising efforts for the course would be directed toward the grocery department. (For reasons which will be discussed later, the savings and loan was dropped as a client and the course worked only with the salvage food retailer.)

The selection of a cooperating firm for the course will always present a challenge. Given a year to locate a client for the next time the course is taught should eliminate some of the frustrations of client selection. Time itself will be a welcomed advantage. All of the recommendations for improving the course and reduction or elimination of each of the frustrations will be discussed in the conclusion of this paper.

Quasi Agency

The student agency is not an officially recognized agency; therefore they could not receive a discount from media for placement of advertising. They were not legally recognized as a business and could only play a somewhat superficial role.

The transfer of funds for the ads were handled directly between the media and the client. The media viewed the students as part of the client's team rather than as a separate advertising agency. The students were aware of this media viewpoint and resented somewhat not being given the recognition they felt they deserved.

Student Agency Structure

After the first three weeks of the course, it became obvious that if the students were to act in the capacity of an agency they should be organized into functional positions similar to those found in an agency.

Rather than facing a continued problem of all the students being in contact with the client, an account executive was selected. This meant the client would be dealing with only one student instead of the complete class. Another student was assigned to head up the media department, the creative function, marketing research and so on. Because there were five students in the course, each student performed more than one function. This organization of the students into functional positions with defined responsibilities eliminated the seemingly endless discussions about each decision to be made within the various functional area.

Assigning students to functional tasks solved the problem dealing with decision making but brought to the surface another problem. It's one thing to assign someone to the position of art director and another to ask him to perform the position of art director, copywriter, creative director and so on, relative to actually creating advertisements. We soon learned that there were a number of the mechanical skills of preparing advertising for which our students of marketing were not prepared. So when it came time to actually create the art work, the agency had to go outside to find a qualified artist to prepare the camera-ready art work. This cost the client additional expense which actually should have been covered by the agency's commissions.

Conducting the Research

Because these students had chosen the promotional strand from the curriculum, they all had eliminated the Research Designs and Applications courses from consideration. Therefore, their backgrounds in actually conducting consumer research were minimal. This required a crash course in marketing research with the instructor preparing more of the research structure than was anticipated. The questionnaire, tabulation and computer program were all written for the most part by the instructor. The actual interviewing of customers was completed entirely by the students. Although the students learned a great deal about the value of research in preparing campaigns, this extra burden was an unexpected frustration for the instructor.

Transportation

Although the cooperating client was located on a major street leading toward downtown Richmond, there were no mass transit buses which came even close to their location. It wasn't until we agreed to meet at the client's place of business after the first class that the transportation problem came to light. Only one of the five students had their own transportation. It never occurred to the instructor that the agency would have to provide transportation to its employees to conduct the interviewing, to visit the newspaper office, to pick up direct mail pieces from the printer, and so on. The transportation problem was never really solved. We just seemed to get by somehow. The instructor provided some of the transportation and one of the students provided the rest.

Channel of Communication

Because the instructor had made the initial contacts with the firm, the client felt it necessary to use the instructor as a middleman for communications between himself and the students. For a while, all communications were handled in this two-stage method. From the client to the instructor and then to the students. The designation of an account executive eliminated a portion of the two-stage process, but not entirely. This problem may have resulted because of the client's inability to reach the students during his working hours and the students' other course work.

Course Schedule

To allow students to discuss their individual functional problems with other members of the class in detail, the course meeting times were established in a single block of three hours on one day instead on one hour a day for three days as is customary at VCU. This meeting time arrangement had both its advantages and disadvantages. We were able to accomplish the discussions of problems within the time constraints of three hours one day a week, but this time frame did not fit the client's needs for student contact.

The savings and loan was dropped as a client because of their needs for instant action. During this semester, the financial industry was undergoing a number of rapid changes. Banks as well as savings and loan associations were changing interest rate offerings on almost a daily basis. For example, the savings and loan client learned on Tuesday afternoon of a new interest rate regulation. They needed an advertisement in next morning's paper telling of the new higher rate. It was impossible to involve the students in this type of crisis advertising. Because of their needs to act immediately with a large portion of their advertising and the turmoil within their industry, it was felt that they could operate best without help from the students.

Anyone who has worked in an agency is aware of the "needed it yesterday" approach to some advertising schedules. Even with an attempt to design and implement a well-planned campaign, the client had a number of "needed it yesterday" ads to be placed that could not be effectively handled with the students meeting only once a week. In some weeks, the students ended up meeting every day to handle the panic scheduling the client came to demand.

Local Media Capabilities

Because the client's market is local in nature, all media used were also of a local nature. This somewhat limited the exposure of the students to any form of an elaborate national media plan. For example, the two newspapers are owned by the same agency and have about the same per-line rate. Although Richmond carries all three national TV networks, only two are local. The third is carried by a Petersburg station, 25 miles South of Richmond.

The students and client soon learned that all of the local media were equipped to perform the functions for the client that the students were attempting to perform. The newspaper had layout and copy people, the TV stations could write the spots, and the radio stations had copywriters on their staffs. It soon became obvious to the client that he could obtain about the same result by bypassing the students and working directly with the media. The largest ad of the campaign was placed directly with one TV station to be run right after Thanksgiving when the students were on break. Although the students had planned the campaign, the client became involved in its scheduling and so on.

If nothing else was accomplished for the client, he became aware of a number of advertising options which he previously had not considered. He increased his advertising budget, began using a number of new media and became aware of the benefits of advertising. The client feels the advertising carried out by the students has had a direct relationship to his doubling of sales during the Fall of 1973 and early Spring of 1974.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The experiences of the past semester have provided a number of insights into the teaching of this type of field course in advertising. Some of the recommendations for the next time the course is taught are provided below.

1. It is recognized that selecting the proper client will always be a problem. The goal of selecting a firm not presently using an advertising agency seems to be a valid one. There are two specific recommendations to be made in this area. First, involve the students more in the identification and selection of the client. This may eliminate the client's continual use of the instructor as a middleman between the client and the students. Second, once the students identify a potential client and the instructor has approached the client and requested cooperation in this course, the instructor should for the most part end his contact with the client.

2. Attempting to select a client close to school to eliminate the transportation problem may be too limiting in the selection. The lack of transportation may be a continual problem which will need to be faced each semester.

3. As soon as possible within the course, organize the students into an agency structure. This can be accomplished by either allowing the students to decide who will fulfill the various positions or by the instructor appointing individuals to various positions. An alternate to this approach is to divide the students into teams of two or three and utilize more than one client in the course. This latter option has additional merit as well which will be discussed in recommendation 6.

4. It was felt by the students that one of the most useful aspects of the course was the research conducted to base the remainder of the campaign upon. Understandably, this research provided useful guidelines for a number of strategic advertising decisions to be made. Because of the usefulness of the research, it is recommended that more emphasis be placed on this portion of the course. Also, possibly requiring a pre-requisite of the Market Research: Designs course.

5. Rather than scheduling the course for a single three-hour block, it is recommended that the course meet on a three-day-a-week basis. This should allow for maximum exposure to the client's daily problems, as well as allow sufficient time for the students to coordinate their activities.

6. Although the course was designed to allow the students to see an advertising problem through to its fruition, a more realistic goal may be the conducting of research to determine the problem and then a mixture of the development of a mock campaign by class members organized into teams of two or three students, as well as the placing of a limited number of actual advertisements. The students felt the creating of an advertisement and seeing their ad on TV or in the newspaper made all the little frustrations of the course worthwhile.

Most would agree that hindsight into a problem is a valuable commodity to have. Hopefully this paper has provided some hindsight into the problem associated with the teaching of a new course, in a new curriculum within a new Marketing Department. Some of the frsutrations have been specific to this course in nature, but hopefully the hindsight gained by this instructor can minimize the frustrations faced by others.

EXPERIMENTAL APPROACHES TO COPYWRITING

by
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We in the field of advertising education occasionally fall into the trap of considering advertising, and more specifically copywriting, an art. The basic premise of this paper is that copywriting is no more an art form than marketing is a pure science. Too often the term art is used to excuse our own inadequacy in defining what we are accomplishing in the classroom.

For the last several years Professor Lane and myself, among others who teach copy at the University of Georgia, have become increasingly concerned about the state of the so-called art of copywriting. This initial soul-searching centered in on three questions:

1) What is the typical copywriting course designed to accomplish?
2) Were there more effective mthods of copy instruction than those presently being used?
3) Were there more objective means of measuring students' copywriting efforts than those we were presently using?

Objectives of Copywriting Instruction

It was somewhat embarrassing that hard questions about the purposes of a course which had been taught for several years were so late in being asked. There were almost as many ideas about the major objectives of the course as there were instructors. In order to attempt to investigate this problem we first asked students what they wished to get out of the course. From student, as well as instructor, input we came up with the following priorities:

1) To give students an appreciation of advertising copy and advertisements as part of the marketing and promotional mix. We found that only about ten percent of our students wanted to pursue careers as copywriters. The remaining students wanted a knowledge of copywriting since they would have peripheral contact with copywriters as account executives, media buyers, etc. In addition, a surprisingly high percentage of students (approximately 25 percent) were not planning careers in advertising and would be utilizing their knowledge as consumers.
2) A second purpose for the course, more often mentioned by instructors than students, was to develop discipline and an ability to follow directions. Some students and instructors mentioned the advantages of developing a creative, inquiring attitude.
3) Finally, the course should strive to turn out competent copywriters ready to step into the field of advertising. Among this group we

have always taken as gospel a quote from David Ogilvy:

> Nobody can write good copy unless he can write lucidly in the first place. But a good writer cannot write good advertisements until he has immersed himself in the marts of trade, studied the realities of salesmanship, and acquired a working knowledge of copy research.

Methods of teaching copy

Armed with the comments of students and faculty, an examination of the structure of our copy classes was begun. At that time (1968) the single copy course, taught in the School of Journalism, met the traditional five days per week for fifty minutes. The first step in an appraisal of copywriting instruction began with the structure of the course, given the goals and objectives sought for our students.

The first change implemented involved the minority of students desiring careers as professional copywriters. In 1960 a new course entitled Advanced Copywriting was instituted to provide the type of indepth instruction needed by these students. One of the major recurring student criticisms voiced in the earlier study involved the lack of opportunity for copywriting instruction beyond the introductory course. The advanced course was designed to give students individualized attention, in small sections and in a more realistic environment than could be provided in the initial, required copywriting course. At the outset a writing test, graded by the advance copywriting instructor, was administered to all potential students as a requirement for admission to the course. After two quarters this procedure proved to be impractical. At the present time the requirement for admittance to the advanced course is a grade of "A" or "B" in the first course.

The advanced course has worked well. Both students and faculty have expressed their enthusiasm for the concept of an introductory "consumer" oriented course and a more advanced "professionally" oriented course. Instructors now feel they can place proper emphasis at both levels without depriving either group of students of needed instruction.

Instituting the advanced course did not, of course, solve all the problems associated with the introductory copy class. In order to give the student more opportunity for supervised writing, several alternatives were tried. First, a class of one hour of lecture and two, two-hour labs per week was scheduled. This seemed more satisfactory than the five one-hour lectures, but instructors complained there was too little time for lecture, especially since students resented lectures during what they considered lab periods.

A variation of this lecture-lab schedule was to hold two hours of lecture and two, two-hours of labs per week. This arrangement proved to be the most satisfactory for students and instructors.

The preceding changes were, for the most part, structural and administrative in nature. There was also an awareness that there was a need for changes in content. An experiment was initiated where two methods of classroom instruction were used. In the first the instruction was centered around the lecture periods with labs devoted to practicing writing skills. In this class most instruction was from the faculty member to the class as a whole and from the instructor to individual students. There was little, if any, interaction between class members.

In the second copy class the one lab session per week was devoted to critiques of advertisements. At first these advertisements were clipped from the media and brought to class. Later the critiques involved advertisements written by class members. The critique method proved to be much more popular than any other method tried.

One problem still exists in all of these methods and that is the overwhelming print orientation of the course. It is very difficult to duplicate print critique sessions with broadcast advertising. From a practical standpoint it is difficult to obtain "bad" advertisements to use in such sessions. The critique of broadcast advertising consists essentially of story-boards done by class members and viewing of "Clio" winners or other samples which can be obtained from local stations on an irregular basis.

Measuring Advertising Effectiveness

The third question concerning the course was the evaluation of student writing. For the most part practical considerations have forced us to adopt the "instructor-as-god" method. All of us have felt the inadequacy of placing grades on ads with nothing more to go on than our intuition. Frankly, after grappling with the problem for over five years the solution seems all too illusive. What follows is a short summary of some of the attempts at student advertising evaluation.

Some of the techniques were procedurial in nature.

The first step in evaluation of student work is determining, for each assignment, a grading criterion prior to actually assigning the advertisement. This standardized criterion has two advantages. First, it prevents the instructor from deviating from his original assignment. And, when presented to the class in the form of a copy platform, it makes the writing of classroom copy more realistic. The instructor's criterion substitutes for the marketing, psychological, action and institutional objectives present in most advertisements.

Even after a standardized criterion for advertisement evaluation has been drawn up, the job is not yet complete. Such a set of standards only partially eliminate biases on the part of the instructor. Bias of the grader will prevent any evaluation from being objective no matter how stringent the grading "rules." The bias of the instructor toward the writer of the advertisement is one of the most obvious, and at the same time one of the easiest to correct. Once the instructor admits that such biases can exist he can correct the situation by asking writers to put their names on the back of the advertisements and then he may grade them anonymously.

Another, more subtle, bias which might creep into such a grading situation is the single-stimulus effect. (Wilbert Mckeachie, Teaching Tips (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The George Wahr Publishing Company, 1963), p. 84.)

> Papers which are read first are graded in terms of some absolute standard which presumably expresses what the grader thinks ought to be in such an examination. Later, however, papers get graded in terms of a frame of reference established by the character of the preceding papers. Because of this, first papers in a group are often graded against a standard of excellence which is higher than later papers. The same thing happens in the case of an average paper which follows a group of unusually good papers. (Ibid., p. 84)

Some of the biases we have discussed are very difficult to overcome. One way to evaluate classroom copy more fairly is to have it graded by more than one person. While this procedure certainly does not eliminate some sources of bias, hopefully they will be diluted among several graders. Recognizing the limitation which multi-graders presents, another alternative method is for the instructor to evaluate the advertisements at two different times. In those cases where there are gross discrepancies between the first and second evaluation, special pains can be taken to reevaluate the advertisements. In some cases it might be wise for the grader to write an advertisement using the same information given the students in order to get a better idea of the difficulty of the assignment. The instructor must develop the grading procedure most satisfactory for him. However, being aware of the kinds and extent of grading bias will make whatever method he chooses more effective.

As time is short let me discuss three experiments which are indicative of the kind of work we are doing.

The Creative Process

All of us on the creative side of advertising have given lip service to the various steps of the creative process. Two of those steps are the period of priming and incubation, the periods of contemplation prior to coming up with a single idea or approach for an ad. While we probably talk about incubation, little has been attempted in the classroom in this area.

In this particular experiment we took matched groups of students taking our copywriting course over the period of a year and used four variations of these creative steps plus a control group. The five groups were labeled: 1) short prime, incubation, 2) long prime, with incubation, 3) long prime, no incubation; 4) short prime, no incubation, and 5) control, no prime, no incubation.

Operational definitions:

1) Prime - the students were "primed" to engage in the creative process by showing them a series of slides consisting of rough layouts, finished ads taken from the media, and short statements of creative cliques (action words are selling words). Short prime was 10 slides, long prime was 20 slides, each taking three seconds.

2) Incubation - the students were told to think about the ads they had seen and the creative process in general while classical music was played for five minutes.

When the appropriate variables had been completed the students were then given a normal copy assignment. The ads were then graded by the instructor with letter grades and the copy was also applied to the Flesch "Human Interest" and "Ease of Reading" formulas. The means of each group were then compared to the mean of every other group. The results which are shown in Table I showed only two comparisons significant at the .05 level. Both the short and long prime incubation groups showed significant when compared to the long prime no incubation group. However, it is important to report that different is not necessarily better, particularly since the relationship between readership tests and creative writing is highly suspect.

TABLE I

Comparisons of Mean Scores for Priming and Incubation Variables

$\bar{x}$ of Flesch Reading Ease Scores		Comparisons of Groups	DF	T Score
Group I	59.73	1 & 2	49	0.70
II	56.85	1 & 3	69	1.70
III	53.51	1 & 4	60	2.93*
IV	47.62	1 & 5	41	1.39
V	52.68	2 & 3	66	0.87
		2 & 4	57	2.15*
		2 & 5	38	0.79
		3 & 4	77	1.61
		3 & 5	58	0.17
		4 & 5	49	0.95

*.05

$\bar{x}$ of Flesch Human Interest Scores		Comparisons of Groups	DF	T Score
Group I	32.89	1 & 2	49	0.51
II	30.96	1 & 3	69	0.63
III	30.84	1 & 4	60	0.93
IV	29.32	1 & 5	41	0.44
V	34.90	2 & 3	66	0.04
		2 & 4	57	0.50
		2 & 5	38	1.24
		3 & 4	77	0.54
		3 & 5	58	1.27
		4 & 5	49	1.41

Readability Tests

All of us would like to be able to apply some objective measure to the copy our students write and apply this standard rather than our own intuition. We also recognize if there were such a fool-proof system, the advertising industry would not have so many unsuccessful ads. In any case Ron and I have been interested in applying readability tests to student copy and one experiment in this area showed some interesting differences after copy instruction.

Methodology

The subjects of the experiment:

The subjects of the present experiment were junior and senior college advertising students, divided into two matched groups. The first was the experimental group of 66 students enrolled in three sections of a copywriting course. Of these 66 students, 53 completed the experiment and comprise the experimental group. The students not included in the experimental group were absent from class either the first or last day of the semester.

The second group number 18 students, of which 14 completed the "before" and "after" writing assignments and made up the control group. As far as possible the control group was selected as a matched group to those students in the experimental group.

Instructions to subjects:

The instructions to both groups of subjects were idential. At the beginning of the semester each student in both the experimental and control groups was instructed to write a short advertisement of up to 250 words directed to fellow students. The advertisement was to deal with a typewriter. Other than the general topic and the length the student was free to approach the problem in any way he wished.

At the end of the semester the same instructions were given to both the control and experimental groups. The following is a discussion of comparisons between the before and after samples of each group's writing and comparisons among the four samples of writing.

Results of the Readability Measures and Expert Opinion

Dale-Chall:

The effects of the course on the Dale-Chall measurement of language difficulty are summarized in Table II. The "t" tests, presented in Table II, show that there were no significant differences between the three pairs of mean tests.

A raw score on the Dale-Chall formula between 6.0 and 8.0 (7th to 10th grade) was considered acceptable for this type of material. The mean score for the experimental group not having taken the course was 7.1206 while the group's mean score was 7.2941 after the students completed the course.

These results from the Dale-Chall formula coincide closely with what one would expect. A class of college students, whether having had a writing course or not, would be expected to be familiar with the general language level of most written material.

TABLE II

Comparisons of Means, by "t" test, of Dale-Chall Formula

Experimental Group Before	Experimental Group After	1.96
Control Group Before	Control Group After	.40
Control Group Before	Experimental Group Before	1.02

* = .01

It was felt that the wide dissemination of advertising using basically the same standard vocabulary might provide most segments of the general public the ability to write at the proper level of language difficulty.

To partially test this assumption a group of 15 persons, whose only characteristic in common was the fact that they had never had any academic or professional writing experience, was chosen. These people were given the same instructions as the original writers, but the only concern was the level of difficulty at which they wrote. The mean score for this group was 7.3001. This figure was somewhat higher than the before experimental group but was not significantly different. From this rather cursory study of "untrained" writers, it seems that people do in some way "know" the language level at which general material should be written.

The Flesch "Human Interest Formula"

The effects of the writing course on the Flesch "Human Interest Formula" are summarized in Table III. The "t" tests (Table III) show a significant difference in the means of the before and after experimental groups.

TABLE III

Comparison of Means, by "t" test, of the Flesch "Human Interest Formula"

Experimental Group Before	Experimental Group After	5.51*
Control Group Before	Control Group After	.45
Control Group Before	Experimental Group Before	1.20

* = .01

An acceptable raw score on the Flesch "Human Interest Formula" for the material was 20.0 to 60.0. The mean for the experimental group prior to taking the course was 25.6. Their score after the course increased to a mean of 35.1 for a difference of 9.5 (or an increase of 37.1%), significant at the .01 level.

The significant change scored on the Flesch test by those students having had the copywriting course indicates an awareness on their part of the intended audience. This awareness is emphasized by most copywriting testbooks. The evidence, while not constituting conclusive proof, seems to indicate that the student writers improved in this aspect of writing by a substantial margin after taking the course.

While the Flesch test is a measure of human interest it is also a measure of the importance the writer places on his audience. If the writer has attempted to communicate with each member of the audience as an individual, this will be reflected in the Flesch score, but more importantly, it will usually produce better advertisements.

Obviously, a high score on the Flesch formula does not assure good advertising. For example, the Flesch formula does not consider whether the material will be understood even though it is directed toward the proper audience. However, a very low score on the Flesch test should cause some concern for the copywriter and lead to a re-evaluation of his work.

The Cloze Procedure

The effects of the copyewiting course on the cloze procedure are summarized in Table IV. The "t" test (Table IV) of the mean scores shows the experimental post-writing course group performed at a significantly higher level than the experimental pre-writing course group.

TABLE IV

Comparison of means, by "t" test, of Cloze Procedure

Experimental Group Before	Experimental Group After	4.85*
Control Group Before	Control Group After	0.00
Control Group Before	Experimental Group Before	.05

* = .01

The advertisements in both the before and after experimental groups had a total of 12,000 blanks each. This is an average of 23 blanks and 10 graders per piece. The before-writing course group showed 6,452 correct blanks or 52.7 per cent. The after-writing course group graders correctly filled in 9,503 blanks or 68.2 per cent. As Table IV indicates this change is significant at the .01 level.

It was felt at the outset of the present experiment that the cloze procedure would be a critical test of the effectiveness of classroom copywriting instruction. The cloze procedure overcomes many of the shortcomings of other standardized tests of language difficulty. By putting the emphasis on total meaning and understanding of a message it avoids the pitfalls which may occur by a reliance on sentence length or selected words as a measure of language difficulty.

The three types of objective readability tests (form, analysis of content, and overall comprehensibility) used together offer the best hope for standardized evaluation of writing. Just as written material may score high on the Flesch test, but not be understandable, the same material could easily score well on the cloze procedure, but arouse no action from its audience. However, several tests may provide information not available from any one test. The problem becomes a practical one since the application of these tests is extremely time consuming especially when the results are of limited usefulness.

Another obvious problem of such tests is that they only apply to the written portion of an ad. They cannot be used in ads where the major concepts are visual. Furthermore, a well written ad can be ruined by a poor layout or visualization, and yet this will not be reflected in any of the readability tests.

Multi Judgments of Advertising

Since most of us are forced to rely on our own judgment, we tried to make some determination about the consistency of such grades. We asked four professional copywriters and four members of our staff who had taught copy within the previous year to rank 134 student ads on a scale from 1-7 (seven being the highest). The results in Table V were revealing.

TABLE V

Extent of Agreement Among Expert Opinion Scores

Differences in scores of graders

None	1 point	2 points	3 points	4 points	5 points
23	40	33	25	12	1
17.1%	29.8%	24.6%	18.7%	8.9%	.7%

From Table V it can be seen that experts agreed on the value of an individual piece in only 17.1 per cent of the 134 examples in the experiment. The two graders differed two or more points on 71 (52.9 per cent) of the material. These figures point up the major disadvantage of relying solely on judgment in evaluating writing. Just as the experts in the present study showed a great deal of inconsistency it might be expected that a letter grade evaluation in the classroom would demonstrate the same lack of consistency.

At first examination of the results of the expert opinion scores it was felt that the differences among the various graders might be due to the fact that professionals and teachers had different standards of evaluation. Since the material was assigned to graders on a random basis there were many instances where two teachers or two professionals graded the same piece. It was clear from examining each sample that the inconsistency of expert opinion was not solely a result of academic-professional differences. In fact, of the 23 pieces receiving the same score from both professionals and teachers, 11 had been graded by someone from each group. One interesting fact is that is seems much easier to agree on a good example than a bad one. The average grade on the 23 pieces which received the same grade from both graders was 4.8. By comparison the mean score for all 134 samples was 3.4.

I would like to close with a plea for continued experimentation into both the creative process and the evaluation of this process. We also have to keep in mind that the ultimate success of an ad is in the marketplace and consequently always beyond our grasp.

BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE AND TELEVISION COMMERCIALS: BACKGROUND FOR CREATIVITY

by
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Few would argue, in 1974, with the value of pretesting television commercials. Viewing in the average American home is currently at the all-time high of 6½ hours per day, and the cost of commercial time runs as high as $120,000 a minute in a weekly TV series. Mistakes--in the form of confusing commercial messages, vague references, and boring or misleading claims--are expensive.

Commercial testing firms, such as Audience Studies, Inc., in California, measure four different audience reactions to TV commercials: the extent of interest generated second-by-second, the amount of involvement of audience members with the commercials, the degree to which each commercial communicated its sales message, and the extent to which each commercial influenced respondents' desires for the advertised products.

Such attempts at determining attitudinal response are noble--and noteworthy. But long before the pretest, copywriters have the opportunity to apply research of a different nature to the actual creation of their commercials. The behavioral sciences provide a rich fund of information from which to draw; social-psychological principles, culled from decades of scientific studies, are relevant to commercial messages, and can often assist copywriters in their selection of themes and demonstrations.

For example, college professors and psychologists alike maintain that things which are understood when they are learned are often better retained than things memorized by rote.[1] Mere repetition of facts, claims, or instructions is of no great value unless the television viewer has some meaning for the material in question. Green Giant vegetables claim to be tender, moist, fresh, and full of flavor--but commercials are a far cry from mere "factual lists." On the contrary, the Jolly Green Giant (and recently his side-kick, Little Green Sprout) grow, pick, cut, and pack the vegetables right before our eyes, so we have at least a basic understanding of how and why claims are true. Similarly, not long ago, a television campaign "proved" that Del Monte foods were selected with special care...so viewers might understand the reason behind the advertiser's promise.

Given a basic understanding and perceived relevance to his own state of affairs, a person learns more effectively if he's exposed to information over several periods of time than if he's bombarded in one fell swoop.[2] Cheer detergent's commercials present the "All Tempa-Cheer" promise in varying situations over time: the expectant father left home to do the wash, the unknowing brother washing his clothes before a special date, and the college student doing his own wash for the first time. Different contexts...different exposures: but the same basic message.

When mechanical skills are involved, psychologists have found that learning is enhanced when subjects can place themselves (mentally if not physically) in roles of performers.[3] In other words, if a person can see a task completed as it would appear to him if he were doing the job himself, his gain, from a learning point of view, will be maximal. Hence, we find easy-to-operate Kodak and Polaroid cameras demonstrated clearly and specifically on the TV screen.

Assuming a basic learning situation is present, there are ways to improve the speed and efficiency with which people master new skills or grasp new ideas. First, demonstrating errors in performance can lead to increases in learning.[4] Since neophytes in a given capacity are bound to make mistakes, a learning situation which takes them into account is bound to reach wrongdoers on common ground. One series of commercials features women whose Clorox has been taken away...and they proceed to wash with their regular detergents. Results show clearly that washing without Clorox is less satisfactory than washing with it. Or, recall the "uncomfortable" situation which arises when the small car car-pool gets crowded. In this case, the copywriter's suggestion for solving the dilemma is expressed by the two-fold question: "Aren't you glad you use Dial? Don't you wish everybody did?"

In a related area, studies have involved messages presenting "both sides" of an issue (the pros and cons, positive and negative aspects, or "right" and "wrong" ways of assessing a situation). As in the case of demonstrating errors, research has shown that, in most instances, two-sided messages are more effective than one-sided messages in eliciting a desired response (especially when the audience is exposed to counterarguments, as they certainly are--daily and hourly--in the case of advertising).[5] A recent TV campaign for St. Joseph aspirin actually makes use of the "other side" in its claim: "We're better...and their test proves it."

Second, a knowledge of results leads to improved learning.[6] Research has shown that "achievement" and "success" are major American value orientations, and indicates that knowing "how well they are doing" can be a great aid to people pursuing a new learning experience. Then, when the road to accomplishment shows some material comfort (another value orientation) at its end, additional gains in learning can be expected.[7] Copywriters on the Grecian Formula 16 account pursued this line of thinking by demonstrating, in step-by-step fashion, the progress men could hope to see as their gray hairs disappeared.

Related research has involved messages containing explicit conclusions as opposed to ones leaving conclusions implied. Again, it appears that the more specifically defined the path of action to a goal, the more likely that path will be followed.[8] Regardless of the degree of audience commitment to the subject, attitude change has been more favorably affected when messages stated end results than when they merely implied what might be in store for message recipients who responded.[9] Sears Die-Hard battery commercials leave no doubts in viewers' minds that the product performs. Cars stand for several hours with engines off and headlights on--and the one with the Die-Hard battery is the only one that starts.

Third, any message is more easily learned if it does not interfere with previously acquired habits or beliefs.[10] Practices involving perceived threats to individual freedoms or progress, for instance, or those deemed impractical or inefficient cannot hope to be accepted--at least not readily.[11] In fact, advertising succeeds only when it draws upon existing attitudes--and shows consumers how their own interests coincide with promises of product performance or with the goals of a service organization. Research has also shown that material which supports a person's own point of view is better *retained* than is material containing conflicting views.[12]

For many Americans, items associated with Nature are "pure," "wholesome," and "healthy." Post Grape Nuts commercials capitalize on this image and position their product as the "back to Nature cereal." Similarly, Chiffon margarine's "It's not nice to fool Mother Nature" campaign emphasizes its product's proximity to "pure butter." In both cases, copywriters have taken advantage of audience predispositions.

Finally, despite all efforts to the contrary, people's rate of forgetting tends to be very rapid immediately after learning has occurred. Although communication studies have shown varying percentages of recall at intervals following message exposure, there is general agreement that an initial recall rate of around sixty percent drops quickly, and then levels off at about thirty percent after a period of four weeks.[13]

In any persuasive situation, therefore, repetition seems mandatory--but what kind of repetition? A study involving news stories presented in three media (newspapers, radio, and television) on a given day found that the items presented most frequently were the ones which showed the greatest audience recall, regardless of the medium involved.[14]

Repetition of claims within a given message, however, also increases retention. Furthermore, repetition *with variation* enhances both retention and interest.[15] Research sponsored by the American Association of Advertising Agencies showed the importance of "continually refreshing the creative work, lest some of it pass into limbo."[16] Audio and video for McDonald's restaurant commercials repeatedly reinforce each other in getting across the "You deserve a break" theme. But *across commercials*, the *reasons* for "deserving a break" range from: a harried day of shopping for Mom and the kids, a father-son outing, and a case where Dad's away and Mom has to be both mother and father...to a family scene in which the *neighbors* get the fastest service because they choose McDonald's instead of a traditional restaurant. Variation aids memorability and, through viewer identification, credibility as well.

A popular research topic for more than fifty years has been the subject of primacy versus recency--the early or late placement of key material in a message or series of messages. Although factors such as audience interest in the message content, and familiarity with topics presented, may have an effect on the debate, one solid conclusion can be drawn from the large number of studies undertaken in this area: placing important material at the beginning or the end of a message is superior to "burying" it somewhere in the middle.[17] Television commercials should play it safe and (in keeping with the above discussion of "repetition") go for the beginning *and* the end (and, when possible, the "middle" as well!).

Now...what about terms such as "attention," "interest," and "persuasion" in the creation of television commercials? Since a number of experiments have been conducted on their behalf, it seems appropriate to examine them here.

As early as 1929, communication research examined "vividness" devices used as attention cues in oral messages. The most effective ones included pauses, and the speaker's use of "now get this" before an important statement.[18] Similar findings were made in 1945.[19] Apparently, listeners regarded these two devices as indicators that something unusual or otherwise noteworthy was about to be said. Today, television audio tracks employ musical "stingers" and other sound effects (as well as voice patterns and verbal suggestions that an important item is up and coming) to cue the attention mechanisms in viewers. Various snack chips (particularly Dorito) use the word "crunch" quite literally (and arrestingly!) in TV commercials...and the lead-in to numerous jingles invites viewers not only to pay attention, but even to sing along.

Other devices in television, affecting both recall and credibility as well as attention, are vocal inflection, diction, and gestures. The more interesting the inflection, the clearer the diction, and the more dramatic the gestures, the higher the rate of recall and the more believable the message.[20]

Few would quarrel with the ability of moving pictures to place viewers "at the scene" in television commercials (and, hence, aid learning as was previously pointed out), and to impress upon them the value of a particular promise or reward. Several studies have, in fact, discovered that video elements in televised messages often generate higher recall than do audio elements, especially in the case of complicated material.[21] Maximum recall can be obtained, however, when audio and visual elements complement each other (that is, show and say the same thing simultaneously).[22]

Regardless of whether a picture, therefore, is worth a thousand, ten thousand, or a million words, it appears that given the choice (in what is, granted, a very visual world), people would rather look than listen. And maybe, in a society that's continually emphasizing leisure, they find "looking" a little easier! Naturally, then, when looking and listening complement each other, the task of comprehension becomes simpler still. Thus, it behooves copywriters to superimpose the exact words spoken (if they're going to super claims at all); if the sound track says: "richer tasting with less effort," why even risk viewer confusion or uneasiness by supering "tastes richer without the effort"?

Human interest and "spectacular" messages are usually more intriguing to audiences than are public affairs items, and familiar events tend to draw more interest than do strange ones.[23] Social psychologists insist that man is a social animal; as such, he naturally enjoys looking at, listening to, and identifying with other people--in situations where their "human" characteristics are especially prominent. The closer to home the situation, the better; or, as psychologists claim: "The people I like best are...like me." Perhaps such reasoning explains, at least in part, the success of such commercials as Kentucky Fried Chicken ("Have a barrel of fun"), Kellogg's Corn Flakes ("Eat 'em all up"), and Listerine ("The taste people hate...or some people like... twice a day").

One of the most controversial elements in advertising message strategies is the source or "authority behind the claims." The well-known studies of Hovland and Weiss, and Kelman and Hovland, resulted in identification of the so-called "sleeper effect"--the tendency, among recipients of a message, to dissociate the source (that is, the speaker) from the content presented after a three-to-four-week period. Hence, the advantage of obtaining a highly credible (and very expensive) source--such as a popular actor, actress, or sports figure--diminishes over time.[24]

Respect for authority is learned at an early age and more or less "accepted" throughout a lifetime. The value of including an authoritative source in a television commercial, however, is debatable. First of all, studies like those just mentioned haven't been replicated in the field of advertising. Second, the importance of repetition in advertising has already been discussed; if messages are repeated within that critical three- or four-week period, what happens to the effect of the source? Does he maintain his persuasive powers? There's no clear answer. Still, lacking any theory of motivation in advertising, and lacking a consistent demonstrated relationship between advertising and action, behavioral science research findings (such as the sleeper effect) have shed valuable light on mental reactions to messages and should serve as important food for thought.

Another persuasive element is the emotional appeal, which is often contrasted with the rational one. Frequently, the distinction is drawn between an emotional and a "reason-why" approach to persuasion; such classifications are misleading, though, because both rational and emotional presentations can (and usually do) offer "reasons why" TV viewers should respond in some prescribed manner. Both can be persuasive and, at times, it's difficult to separate one from the other since "emotional" is a term for which people have different meanings at different times.[25]

Still, emotions appear to run high in TV commercials of the 1970's--from "the next best thing to being there" (Long Distance), and "a nice way to say I love you" (Seat Belts), to "people you can count on when the going's rough" (Metropolitan Life Insurance). Today, it seems that emotional tactics are believed to be more effective than rational approaches in eliciting action.

A final concern here is with persuasive appeals involving fears or threats. Perhaps the classic study in this area was done by Janis and Feshbach, dealing with strong, moderate, and mild fear appeals regarding dental hygiene. The former resulted in the most emotional tension on the part of subjects, but the latter led to the greatest amount of conformity to suggestions given in the message.[26] Apparently, when fear was strongly aroused but not fully relieved by reassurances in a persuasive situation, subjects were motivated to ignore or minimize the importance of the threats.[27]

As was true in the case of emotional appeals, however, there's a serious lack of workable definitions in the area of "anxiety-producing" stimuli.[28] In other words, when is a threat not a threat? Whatever your answer, today's TV commercials seem to side with "mild" fear/threat appeals. The pretty girl can't win her man until she uses Close-Up toothpaste...and kids and parents have to worry about cavities until they switch to Crest. Or, breakfast adds too many calories unless the choice is Total (or Kellogg's K!)...and you're not really clean unless you're "cleaner than soap"--Zest-clean. Even the threat of damaged hair (Johnson's Baby Shampoo is "gentle enough to use every day") just doesn't seem too frightening in this day of wonder-cures, instant-remedies, and hundreds--even thousands--of advertising promises coming at us every day. Use of the familiar problem-solution format in a mild threat or fear situation has proven satisfactory for nearly every television advertiser at one time or another, and will undoubtedly continue to be utilized.

The list of social-psychological findings which can be applied to TV commercials is almost endless. The above are but a few examples selected to show the need for specific research studies in the area of television commercials. They clearly illustrate, however, how advertising has borrowed from psychoanalysis its laws of association--and from behaviorism its principles of conditioning. Research in mass communication is just beginning to offer answers to the questions which plague TV message strategists.

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THAT NEW GHOST:
THEATRICAL DEVICES IN THE CLASSROOM

*It's not whether every Instructor can offer a theatrical classroom presence -- it's whether theater helps students attend, learn, retain, apply, etc.

by
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During the past five years academic discussion of the subject of employing theater in the classroom has ballooned. Proponents state emphatically that theater is a motivational factor for compelling attention, interest, retention, application, etc. Implicit in this belief, and to date without extensive, convincing proof, lies a fundamental belief that theater is an effective teaching device. Evidence supporting the effectiveness of theater is at best equivocal. There is, however, seeming and mounting alarm over the possibility of theater's success disrupting some Instructors from their lecture-and-test habits. The best guess is that experimentation with theater in the classroom will continue and will expand despite the threat it represents to some. One does hear occasionally such remarks as: "I don't want any Dean discovering a television set that can instruct better than I can!"

Proponents of theatrical classroom teaching argue that it is a universal language that not only entertains (they admit this willingly), but that it rivets and rams home the fundamentals of any course. Theater humanizes a sometimes starchy, elitist pedagogue. It allows him to speak to members of his classroom as Rowan and Martin speak, not as does Sir Laurence Olivier. Fly-specked, dessicated professorial authority is made appealing.

Opponents maintain that theater is not universal. What is theatrical to junior college students is not theatrical to upper level students. Some feel that theater in most Instructors' hands at best entertains, at worst opens the amateur teacher-dramatist to ridicule. Some feel that theater wears out quickly on repetition and consequently does not teach in the long run. In brief, it dilutes the classroom authority. Further, these people emphatically state that preparation to become an amateur teacher-theatrist is time-consuming, time that might better be used to develop straight-forward student understanding of the subject at hand.

These two views aren't even competitors. Proponents are decidedly in the minority. Foremost among them, of course, is Dorothy Heathcote of The University of Newcastle upon Tyne, England. Her essential thesis is that Instructors must call on their own resources. Admittedly, some of these resources are pretty slim. Or, at best, they're oriented to years of book-learning, historical and unusable classroom facts, speculation, theory, and blue-sky. With a nod in their direction, let us observe that theater in the classroom may involve a risk, if it does not come off, it's a disaster. If it does come off, it can be quite effective. And it would seem that some personalities can use it, some simply can't use it. Nonetheless, Dorothy Heathcote refuses to acknowledge a dichotomy, and continues to press that with training and understanding even the most habituated lecture-and-test professor can use theater to advantage. The big point, and both sides may agree on this, probably is that theatrical devices can be effective if used as a means and not as an end in themselves. Such devices might well be the making of conscientious but presently ineffective Instructors.

The basic plank on which proponents of theater in the classroom rest is that it is an effective means of compelling student learning, and that it is a more effective means than a serious straight-forward version of the same message. Said another way, these people say that theatricalizing of an Instructor's message is more compelling than the same message delivered without theatrical motion from the Instructor. Much of the existing contention stems from the fact that there is a scarcity of empirical evidence available to support one side or the other.

This paper does not review primary nor peripheral literature existing on this subject. It does, however, refer readers to Dorothy Heathcote's material as probably the most advanced of its kind available.

What is Theater in the Classroom?

It is an attitude that accepts the theatrical type presentation opposed to an expository type presentation. The same material may exist in each, although it may be phrased differently. In the theatrical type presentation students do not interact with each other. In the course with which this paper is concerned, students are concerned with the monitor (professor, action, actors, etc.) in the classroom, and they may take on roles therefrom.

An extension of theater is drama. By drama one means viewing a set (appearing, say, on the classroom monitor) in which people interact; they do not interact with the audience nor the camera. Drama is internal, and may not necessarily make a contribution to an audience. Implicit in theater in the classroom, however, is an attempt to make material (the message, the content of the course) explicit by using theatrical flair. Both types, theatrical type presentation and drama, where used for educational purposes, are not necessarily designed for performance elsewhere.

When an Instructor uses theatrical motion he presents materials so (1) it's clothed in a more exciting, colorful, appealing manner, (2) it provokes heightened student interest, (3) it rivets attention. And while students are thus more receptive, rams home the message. Variety of presentation enhances the message, it also enhances the theatrical presentation. Variety can cover a multiplicity of effects. Examples: the Instructor's cruising about the campus on his Honda, appearing in the classroom attired to conform to the nature of his subjects, sound slide films, transparencies, etc. These examples are only a few of the possibilities, all offering special characteristics of theatrical presentation.

The basis from which theatrical effort springs is students' standard complaint: "It's dull!" Having once heard this, the perceptive Instructor asks himself: "How can I compel students to learn more?" What he means is how can I cause students to become more receptive once in the classroom, receive more, retain more, and apply more? Students do have preferences. The stark fact is they do perceive some Instructors as dull. They reject these people, they are not receptive. They do not attend, perceive, retain, and apply. The conclusion of this paper is that students are more likely to select instruction, perceive its principles, associate, relate, retain, and then apply--instruction that is theatrically clothed. In sum, the cognitive gain is greater.

The End Result of Teaching with Theatrical Devices

A simple definition of teaching lies in its obligation: to facilitate learning in a purposeful, planned, and specific manner.

Unfortunately, there are certain juices and impulses and blocks in the body and nervous system that inhibit learning. Learning is the successful acceptance of, storage of, and retention of memories in the nervous system. Therefore, learning occurs best when these inhibiting juices, impulses, and blocks are minimized.

It is the contention of this paper that instruction by theatrical devices, particularly when used on television, improves the acceptance of, storage of, and retention of memories in the nervous system. Evidence supporting this belief follows.

Instruction That's Light-Hearted

During 1972 Bud Koontz (F. R. (Bud) Koontz is a television producer-director for University Television Services and an assistant professor of technological media at The University of Toledo. He holds a B. Sc. Ed. from Bowling Green State University and an M. A. from Ohio University where he was the first graduate student of Ohio University to have a television series go into nationwide circulation.) and Phil Sinclair (P. A. Sinclair is an associate professor in the Community and Technical College of The University of Toledo. He holds a B. Sc. Business from Ohio State University and an M. Sc. from Northwestern. He spent 20 years in selling, advertising, public relations, and research, and instructs subjects in these areas.) constructed a 10-unit television lecture series in Business Communications 706-102 at the University of Toledo. The series was unique in that it used a light-hearted approach. Further, it used advertising techniques. Principally it employed the Rowan and Martin "in-and-out" technique to dramatize high points. The lectures themselves are strongly visual, comic, topical, with considerable graphics, some satirical. Inherent in this theatricalized television presentation is Phil Sinclair's strong belief that students learn best in short bursts of not more than 90 seconds. This is a philosophy taken directly from television commercials. The series was launched during the Spring quarter 1972 with the Instructor doing on videotape what he had done previously in-person. Five quarters, 14 sections, and 246 students later the results in this particular experiment seem to favor theatrical presentation by television. Read on.

How Measurements Were Approached

Koontz and Sinclair had open to them the standard methods for measuring impact of their television instruction: (1) by surveying the class with a printed questionnaire filled in following presentations; (2) through measuring impact on students by some sort of test, and (3) through observation by a trained observer. All three were ultimately used, but the third was not scientifically recorded and analyzed.

No attempt was made to observe students' reactions such as cheering, whistling, stamping, smiling, etc. Their verbal comments were noted in general. Thus, no acceptable measurements accrued from smiles, laughter, clenching of fists, frowns, hisses, hoots of derision, etc., exhibited by student audiences in response to particular theatricalized skits and scenes. The intensity and duration of these expressions are difficult to scale. Since this was the first course taught by television at The University of Toledo, no levels of reaction were available for comparative purposes.

The heart of the experiment was three-fold: (1) to measure impact of theatricalized instruction by television through tests: (2) to measure impact of burlesqued instruction by television through tests, and (3) to measure the impact of instruction in-person through tests. This latter represented traditional lecture instruction. Note that all three types instruction, save for the scenes where speech major student actors were employed, were carried on by the same Instructor instructing the same message during the 5-quarter period.

Results from testing students after such instruction and results from surveying students after such instruction are shown in this article.

Overall Results

Koontz and Sinclair launched this television series believing such instruction is superior to in-person instruction. They also suspected there would be a difference between theatricalized instruction and burlesqued instruction. Mean scores of tests and statistical analysis involving 246 students tend to confirm this, thus:

	TEST AVERAGES all 5 tests, 15 questions drawn from television lectures	TEST AVERAGES all 5 tests, 30 questions drawn from course text
Spring quarter, 1972	74	64
Fall quarter, 1972	75	66
Winter quarter, 1973	73	63
Spring quarter, 1973	75	64
Fall quarter, 1973	71	64
Averages, all sections (14), 246 students, 5 quarters:		
Television questions (1-15) .	73+	
Text questions (16-45). . . .		64+

Empirical evidence tends to confirm that 246 students did produce more favorable test results when instructed by theatricalized television than when instructed with the aid of a printed text.

However, the most important aspect of this instruction, reflected in test results, is the difference in results between Test 3 and Test 4. Test 3 (of a total of 5) tested students after having been instructed by television using theatrical devices. Test 4 tested students after having been instructed by television using burlesqued devices. Note. . .

Theatrical Devices vs. Burlesqued Devices

Coupled, Lectures 7 and 8 present about 75 minutes of instruction on how to prepare reports. Lecture 7 is theatricalized presentation with Rowan and Martin "ins-and-outs" but no burlesque. It presents principles. Lecture 8 burlesques the preparation of reports. It's a wild thing. An attractive girl speech major puts together for the viewing audience a report on a zany subject: Mad magazine. Test 4 then tests students on these two lectures and their understanding of report-making. Results from test 246 students show this:

		MEAN TEST SCORES, Television Instruction
Spring quarter, 1972,	3rd test . . .	79 (theatricalized TV)
	4th test . . .	83 (burlesqued TV)
Fall quarter, 1972,	3rd test . . .	80 (theatricalized TV)
	4th test . . .	82 (burlesqued TV)
Winter quarter, 1972,	3rd test . . .	56 (theatricalized TV)
	4th test . . .	84 (burlesqued TV)
Spring quarter, 1973,	3rd test . . .	78 (theatricalized TV)
	4th test . . .	81 (burlesqued TV)
Fall quarter, 1973,	3rd test . . .	58 (theatricalized TV)
	4th test . . .	84 (burlesqued TV)

Notice the continued, high scores from testing students on information presented by Lectures 7 and 8 ...

Test results, Test 4 ... average test score for all sections taught by theatricalized Lecture 7 and burlesqued Lecture 8 (10 sections, 196 students) . . . . 82+

Test Results Following In-Person Instruction

Sinclair further offered 4 sections totalling 50 students the same Lectures 7 and 8, theatricalized and burlesqued on television, but this time by himself--in person. The Instructor gave these 50 students in 4 sections the identical message from a lectern in front of the sections, but without any theatricalized or burlesqued effort. This represents the traditional classroom presentation ...

Test results, Test 4 ... average test score for all sections taught in-person, straight-forward lecture, same content, same Instructor (4 sections, 50 students) . . . . 72+

Test Scores Following Instruction from Text

Now look at the third aspect of this measured instruction; this shows results from tests following instruction from the text accompanying the course. Each chapter was reviewed as the course progressed, and supposedly, students studied the chapters either before or after class review. Or so the syllabus and Instructor requested ...

Test results, all 5 tests ... average test score for 14 sections over 5 quarters taught from course text (246 students, 14 sections) . . . . 64+

Results from Surveying Students

These results were achieved by administering a printed questionnaire immediately following each of ten television lectures. This permitted students to evaluate specific aspects of each television lecture, as well as certain instructional television production techniques. Each student received a packet of 10 evaluation forms whereby he could evaluate the 10 televised lectures, one for each week in a quarter of 10 weeks. The specific areas selected for student evaluation are shown below. Each student was asked to rate each of these items, using his own judgment. Each item was rated from excellent (5 points), good (4 points), average (3 points), fair (2 points), and poor (1 point). This form was issued to each of 246 evaluating students during the 5 quarters the television lectures were evaluated, save for those 50 students taking in-person instruction. Results are shown below in rank order:

1.	Skits (the Rowan and Martin "in-and-out" technique)	3.522
2.	Visuals	3.494
3.	Content	3.484
4.	Development	3.428
5.	Summary	3.370
6.	Lecture rating	3.353
7.	Introduction	3.300
8.	Hold attention	3.321
9.	Length of lecture	3.255
10.	Speed of delivery	3.250
11.	Participation	3.179

Notice that the skits rate highest. These are humorous, often satirical, some burlesque. The technique is titled "in-and-out" because it's a direct steal from the Rowan and Martin show; it's used basically because it's the Instructor's belief that a light-hearted approach is desirable in classroom instruction. He also believes academic people must get more theater into their instruction.

The visuals rank second, indicating that Koontz and Sinclair did achieve their objective of presenting a highly visual series with strong visual ideas and concepts to enhance learning.

The lecture ratings themselves, a 3.353, are at mid-point on the scale. On the 5-point scale used, perhaps this is about what one would expect. This is undoubtedly coupled with the low ratings given speed of delivery, a 3.250. Both Koontz and Sinclair are aware of this defect, and in subsequent television efforts now planned, the speed of delivery is slowed down. Participation, as is normal with a television effort, is last, a 3.179. Lecture 3, however, does incorporate student participation. The Instructor comes on-screen, asks students to engage in a practice communicative effort, and then students rate each others' efforts. Subsequent television efforts will expand student participation.

The Nature of TV Instruction with Theatrical Devices

In planning the series, Koontz and Sinclair knew they were dealing with students who have an imperfect understanding of language and its uses. Realizing this, they resolved to visually reinforce instruction with a considerable number of graphics and illustrative devices, plus the theatrical quality of peers using communicative devices favorably and unfavorably. In brief, vital points leading toward change in habits and attitudes were theatricalized, or visually reinforced. On occasion one student illustrated the point, and another two and three students demonstrated it. In the opening to Lecture 7, notice how easily the simile is illustrated with court and fairway shots:

> Hi, everybody!
>
> By this time you've realized that communication, to be interesting and effective, must be like a tennis match. One player is obliged to return the ball to the other court. Then the other player returns it. But to most people it's like a golf match, where each hits his own ball and keeps pigheadedly after it, ignoring others.

This theatricalized, or "show" quality helps make instruction more interesting, more understandable, more meaningful. The skits lend impact, a prime characteristic the presentation strove for. Learning need not be lecture-memory-test, but at the same time it should not be pedantic and spoon-fed.

Students are required to take notes during TV lectures, filling in blanks with words that complete vital thought. Even though the finished and typed letter, shown as an example on the monitor, is frequently not readable, duplicates in printed form are provided students at their seats to study. Such letters on the monitor are then broken into paragraphs for examination and analysis in detail. Where possible and applicable peers to students act out vital points, showing unfavorable and favorable results from mis-application and proper application of the principle concerned. These skits are varied, sometimes straight, often comic, frequently satiric.

As for advertising techniques, several were adopted and made their appearance in this series.

For example, the hard-sell. Two minutes were devoted to scenes from Franco Ziffarelli's production of Romeo and Juliet to show enclosure. The before-and-after technique. The Anglo-Saxon version of the Lord's Prayer is compared with the modern version. The testimonial. A student confirms he got the job because of communicative techniques advocated by this course:

Graduate: Yep, I got the job because I showed I could think up activities to push sales. I contrived a phrase the company used for ten years: "Good morning, madame. Here, have a packet of marigold seeds with our best wishes."

The show-don't-tell technique.

Narrator: Let me show you how the oral sales effect is paralleled by the written sales effort (HE THEN SHOWS A SALES LETTER ANALYZED IN MARGINS TO SHOW THE PARALLEL).

The case history technique uses a 1900-styled, old maid English school teacher to show the need for cookbook simplicity in speaking and writing:

Narrator: Tell me, Miss Samantha, are you still working on that secret formula?

Miss Samantha: Oh, my, yes!

Narrator: Just what is it?

Miss Samantha: I'm trying to formulate a wonderful new perfume with my own ingredient in it.

Narrator: What's that?

Miss Samantha: It makes a man imagine he can support a wife! (PAUSE)

Narrator: Now let's continue with dear old Miss Samantha, one of several teachers who've taught you English in the past.

Miss Samantha: I love elegant phrases like:
-- smell the soft witchery of honeysuckle at midnight
-- I like flower-words:
-- he is a booming bastion of business success
-- I dote on subordinate clauses, but then, perhaps I am somewhat out of date. I still teach we should throw away our language's beautiful exclamation point ... nobody is surprised anymore!

Oh, yes, I enjoy complicated sentence structure, properly punctuated, that is ...

As for the "Laugh-In" in-and-out technique, it's a natural. The narrator makes a point; he immediately illustrates it or proves it by having student actors act it out, humorously, satirically, straight, or perhaps by burlesque.

In the following dialog, Prunella, the girl student, laments distractions on her thoughtput. By using hyperbole she attacks the established need, supposedly valid, to study, to practice communicating mechanically. She is sympathizing with her audience.

Narrator: Thoughtput? I know all about input and shortfall and overshoot and stretchout and inter-mean...

Prunella: (HAUGHTILY, IN A SUPERIOR MANNER) Thoughtput, my dear sir, is the product of thinkput and bodyput. I allocated three-quarters of an hour of thinkput to this report on Mad magazine, but twenty-four hours of bodyput. The combined mental and physical effort equals thoughtput, the total effort to produce a collegiate project.

Another example of this in-and-out technique lies in the fifth lecture titled, "What textbooks don't tell you about writing business letters." The narrator demonstrates adverse effects from each of five principles: never write letters in anger, never apologize, never threaten anybody, never promise what you can't deliver, and never make playful remarks in letters. Each one is burlesqued to reinforce impact and compel retention. Example: don't make playful remarks in letters:

Dear Joe: Lunch with your charming wife last week was delightful. I'm looking forward to doing it again soon.

Narrator: Well, with this double meaning the boss gets a copy of this letter and he immediately asks himself:

The Boss: H-m-m-m. What's it? It? IT? This going on in my office? Never! Roquefort! Come in here!

The entire 10-unit series is well localized for quick identification. College students are easily classified into the Windmaker, the Image-maker, and the Figure-maker. Each of these is represented on the monitor, hilariously so, by peers. Example:

The Wind-maker: Hey, Joe, how's your 'ole bod? Hey, whatcha got on the test coming up tomorrow? Whaddja do over the week-end? Oh, heck, I forgot my comb this morning. Joe, can you help me with that blasted test coming up? I sure need some help.

Criteria for Theatrical Scenes

Certain criteria guided the production of theatrical scenes in this 10-lecture series:

1. Each theatrical scene must directly reinforce the lecture content and must not distract the student from the concept presented.
2. The skits must become an integral part of the lecture content and well synthesized into the behavioral objectives.
3. The scenes must be appropriately designed for the level of the intended audience.
4. The scenes must be constructed in a form that enable actors to learn their lines in a minimum of time, i.e., scenes do not require an extensive amount of rehersal time.
5. Scenes must contain some form of reinforcement device, e.g., repetition, restatement, example, illustration, analogy, etc.

6. Scenes should be relatively short, ranging from 1 to 3 minutes.
7. Characters in the scenes must be realistic and believable.
8. Scenes must be pleasing, enjoyable and professionally presented.
9. Realistic examples may be used when it is appropriate, e.g., television commercials.

Summary and Conclusions

The academic community holds a traditional view of theatrical devices in the classroom, proved since instruction in the United States is presently about 95% lecture-and-test. This is provable also since most colleges and universities do not offer courses titled: How to Instruct Effectively Using Theatrical Devices. Although individual and highly personal experiments with theatrical devices do indicate these devices are persuasive, or impactful, universal adoption is not imminent. The difference between levels is important. No studies exist to show that highly motivated graduate students respond better to theatrical devices. Further, credibility of the Instructor undoubtedly has much to do with this. A highly respected authority seemingly lectures and motivates. What would happen to his presentation if it incorporated theatrical devices? Improve it? Or make it laughable? Thus, the relative influence of a theatrical presentation by a young and inexperienced Instructor is unknown, to say nothing of the effect of such devices when presented by an authority at the freshman/graduate level.

But there is ample evidence that students dislike dull lectures and dull instructors. What alternative is there to this? The term theatrical devices covers considerable zip and zing any determined Instructor can bring to his classroom. Given the human limitation, certain conclusions seem logical:

1. theatrical devices do attract favorable attention.
2. they seemingly do develop and maintain interest, for how long is not known.
3. theatrical devices seem to be interest-maintaining, or persuasive, but the persuasive affect is at best no greater than that of a serious, authoritative lecturer presenting material to motivated students.
4. theatrical devices tend to improve source credibility.
5. theatrical devices seem to increase affection for the Instructor and create a positive mood. This seemingly increases the persuasive affect, its storage in the memory, its retention, and its ultimate application.
6. theatrical devices tend to reinforce positively; to this extent such devices may make an Instructor's classroom performance more influential.

There is, however, a growing belief that more theater must be incorporated into the classroom. This is inextricably bound up with personality. Most instruction is traditionally lecture-and-test, yet there is no proof whatsoever that learning occurs simply because an alleged Instructor appears regularly before a class in a classroom. The apochryphal story of Harvard students enrolling in a class, appearing once, and then spending the rest of the semester in Florida supports this. Tradition is holding back the use of theatrical devices in classrooms. A further inhibitor is that considerable skill is required to use such devices.

But the extension of all this is intriguing, and that is where an Instructor teaches inspiration, not pedantry.

Resolutions to the foregoing observations, and much more, await empirical research.

ADDING A PROFESSIONAL TOUCH TO YOUR ADVERTISING CAMPAIGNS

by
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Department of Advertising
College of Journalism & Communications
University of Florida

VIDEO	AUDIO
(slide 1) ADDING A PROFESSIONAL TOUCH TO YOUR ADVERTISING CAMPAIGNS	Your advertising students may have produced the most solid research...the most innovative media plan the most incisive budget allocation...and they may well be the greatest collection of advertising talent ever assembled in one spot since David Ogilvy dined alone... but if the presentation of their work is fumbling and inept, it should surprise no one if their entire effort is looked upon by viewers as amateur night at the junior high school. Surely the presentation of an advertising campaign deserves at least half the team's effort.... Surely the show business aspects of a campaign--mood, pacing, timing, climax, closing--deserve some scrutiny... Surely a 1974 student of advertising ought to insist on communicating through the media he prefers--music, sound, photography and film. I therefore propose a more professional approach...a more up-to-date approach...to the preparation and presentation of student advertising campaigns. There are three steps to be taken.
(slide 2) WRITE IT EARLY	No. 1...have the presentation written as early as possible...and assign this important function to one or more of your best students.
(slide 3) USE TODAY'S TOOLS	No. 2...get rid of the rickety easel, the newsprint pad, the school-marm's pointer and the next-to-impossible-to-read charts...and substitute music, sound effects, voices, photography, graphics and film to deliver a dramatic message with real impact.
(slide 4) PACKAGE THE CAMPAIGN	No. 3...package the entire campaign on slides, film and tape so the ideas come across crisply without the frenetic atmosphere many of us mistake for professional verve.

(slide 5) THE WRITING (slide 6) CU of sample cards	Begin writing and re-writing the presentation as soon as the necessary data have been collected. A brief hand-written outline of the points to be covered provides a guideline for the preparation of five by eight-inch index cards containing a rough visual and related copy for each slide separately.
(slide 7) CU of cards with time sequence circled in red	Number the cards sequentially, and note on each card the cumulative time.
(slide 8) cards arranged on wall	Arrange the cards in sequence either spread out on a floor or taped to a wall.
(slide 9) student working on cards	Now read the cards and follow the visuals over and over. Add a card here...take two out there...make certain each visual and each word of copy moves the story along to a dramatic conclusion.
(slide 10) two students timing presentation	Use a stop watch to time the presentation. Insist that every student campaign conform to a pre-determined length and make no exceptions.
(slide 11) CU of typed script	Once each frame is selected and the visuals and words tied together, type the script in the style you use for television commercials.
(slide 12) THE PRODUCTION	To assist those students who lack the equipment or the know-how to photograph color slides, we provide a Kodak Visualmaker Kit.
(slide 13) CU of open kit	This inexpensive and readily portable kit is about as fool-proof and as simple as any piece of photographic equipment could be.
(slide 14) CU of student with camera	The Visualmaker utilizes the ubiquitous Kodak Instamatic Camera, veteran of millions of graduations, weddings and Walt Disney World memories.
(slide 15) CU of camera on stand	Equipped with a flash cube and mounted on a stand containing a close-up lens, Kodak's Instamatic automatically provides correct focal length, light source and exposure.
(slide 16) THE PACKAGING (slide 17) CU of machine name	Now, to put it all together, we have a portable multi-media center built for about $20.00 and called by some of my students, "Captain Nemo's Magic Show & Tell Machine."
(slide 18) long shot of machine	The metal frame is a standard 19" radio equipment rack that had been gathering dust in our radio studio for years.

(slide 19) CU of machine dolly	A bit of scrounging produced swivel casters...and my home workshop produced shelves and a dolly bolted to the bottom of the rack.
(slide 20) CU of projector (slide 21) CU of dissolve unit	Two model 860-H Kodak Carousel Projectors with four to six-inch zoom lenses were installed and plugged into a standard Kodak Dissolve Unit.
(slide 22) CU of tape player (slide 23) CU of plug strip	A combination cassette tape player/ programmer was added on a sliding shelf... and all the equipment was then plugged into an integral power strip.
(slide 24) instructor moving machine	Any classroom, office or meeting room immediately becomes a multi-media theater when our "Show & Tell Machine" is rolled into place and set up.
(slide 25) instructor removing screen	With the projector screen removed and erected...
(slide 26) instructor removing remote speaker	With the remote speaker removed and placed near the screen...
(slide 27) instructor holding power cord and plug	With the single power cord unreeled and plugged into the nearest electrical outlet, your campaign team is ready for a fully-automatic presentation.
(slide 28) students recording in radio studio	For the audio portion of the presentation, we utilize the facilities of our radio studios to record music, sound effects and voices onto audio tape.
(slide 29) CU of patch cord from reel-to-reel to cassette player (slide 30) CU of hand pressing impulse button	Using a reel-to-reel tape player, we transfer the audio track to a tape cassette. Once the entire presentation is recorded on the cassette tape, an inaudible, high-frequency impulse is added to the tape by pressing this button whenever the script calls for a slide change.
(slide 31) student installing slides	With the slides inserted alternately in each slide drum...
(slide 32) placing drums on projector	With the drums numbered "one" and "two" and installed on the projectors...
(slide 33) focusing projectors	With the projectors correctly adjusted and focussed...
(slide 34) finger pressing PLAY	All the operator need do is press this single button to begin the presentation of his

campaign automatically...like this one done by one of my student teams for Ocala Jai-Alai.

(slides 35 through 58)
Introduction to Ocala
Jai-Alai campaign

(audio track of introduction to Ocala Jai-Alai campaign)

(slides 59 through 109)
Ocala Jai-Alai campaign

This campaign was actually twenty minutes in length, but because of time limitations today I can only show you the introduction and then give you this rather rapid run-through the campaign itself and then a bit of the closing. It's worth noting here that all the work in this campaign was done by four students with no assistance from anyone at any time. Their own voices are used in the narration...they took all the photographs themselves...they designed their own research survey and conducted their own interviews...they created and produced their own ads...did the entire campaign from beginning to end themselves.

At the completion of the presentation, which included objectives, strategy, theme, research, media and all creative work, the team presented executives from the client organization a bound book containing all materials used in the presentation, along with a computer print-out of their research cross-tabulated by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences computer program. It is, without a doubt in my mind, the finest effort by any group of campaign students I've ever seen...and I might also add, it's considerably more sophisticated than many I've been involved with over the years in the advertising agency business.

Admen who have viewed this campaign have come away shaking their heads in disbelief that work of this quality was produced by young students...two of whom were hired before their graduation by agency executives who appreciated the quality of work done in the Ocala Jai-Alai campaign.

(audio track of Ocala Jai-Alai closing)

(slide 110)
FUN TO PLAN
FUN TO PRODUCE
FUN TO SEE AND HEAR

There it is then...a student campaign which, in my opinion, is both entertaining and informative...a campaign which reflected positively on the team that produced it...a campaign that was FUN to plan...FUN to produce...FUN to see and hear. Thank you for permitting me to share it with you. THE END.

THE CREATIVE CLASS AS AD AGENCY

by
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Agreeing to teach ad copy and layout at Kansas State University four years ago posed the greatest threat I had ever faced in my teaching career. For these reasons: (1) I had not worked in the field; therefore, could not draw from firsthand knowledge and experience, and (2) I had not had any specific formal training in the creation of advertisements. Because I felt so uptight and inadequate in this area, I "discovered" a new approach to teaching this course, one that is being recommended and copied nationwide. How did the method evolve?

Consulting with several university professors of advertising about how to teach creativity in advertising, I learned that (1) they, too, felt inadequate in this area, (2) many lacked practical experience and were not current with the field, and (3) they were not satisfied with the results they were getting from their teaching.

I struggled with ad copy & layout for two semesters--very much dissatisfied with my performance. I felt I had the basic skills for teaching the course: a strong background in graphics and design and a better-than-average professional competence in photography and writing skills. I simply wasn't getting it all together.

In my dilemma I did what every teacher should do. I went to professionals in the field. I interviewed advertising graduates who had been on the job from one to five years. I talked with advertising agency owners, with newspaper advertising managers, with art directors and with anyone else in the profession who would listen.

I asked them for an evaluation of their college advertising courses. What did you get from your courses that helped you most? What did you not get that you found you needed? How would you teach a creative course in advertising?

One response came through louder and more frequently than any other: "What we learned in college did not prepare us for the 'real world' of advertising."

How the ad copy & layout class at K-State evolved into an advertising agency, the teaching philosophy, the early successes and the benefits to students were reported briefly by the author in a paper presented to the American Academy of Advertising in Tempe, Arizona, March, 1973, and in the October, 1973 issue of Journalism Educator.

The class has been involved in projects since that time which have brought credit to itself and its parent department of journalism, as well as benefits to state, professional and private organizations.

It is a Happy Triumvirate in which all participants benefit. The remainder of this paper will be devoted to an examination of this teaching concept.

The essence of any professional advertising agency is doing business, performing services for clients, and hopefully, making a profit. The management concepts applied to an agency organized into a classroom situation are not unlike those applied to a professional agency. "But," the question arises, "doing business with whom, how much profit, etc?" Obviously a teacher in a state-supported institution is on rather tenuous footing in organizing anything that has the potential of competing with private enterprise.

Enter the Happy Triumvirate. It works like this:

Part one of the Triumvirate is the class, functioning as an advertising agency, searching for a project so that its members might gain professional experience, build a portfolio, and incidentally, learn something about advertising.

Part two of the Triumvirate is an organization--preferably non-profit, and more than likely, without an advertising budget.

Part three of the Triumvirate are the media that might print or air the advertisements produced by the class.

It's not as difficult as it may seem. Following are two case histories where this was done very successfully.

Kansas Press Association Campaign

Part one--The Department of Journalism at Kansas State University is always desirous of building better relationships with the Kansas Press Association. We need their support. Our graduates need jobs with member newspapers. What department of journalism is not concerned about the same relationships?

Part two--Members of KPA and its executive secretary had expressed a desire to obtain advertisements which would promote newspapers as an effective advertising medium, as a servant of the community, as a watchdog for public concerns, etc.

Part three--Member newspapers of KPA--more than 300--quite obviously, would run the advertisements as house ads, if they were worthy.

Result--A Happy Triumvirate: (1) Students work enthusiastically to produce camera-ready ads they believe will be published in newspapers spanning the length and breadth of Kansas. (2) The professional staff of KPA takes a lot of credit for coordinating the effort and providing newspapers with a needed promotional campaign. (3) Kansas journalists have examples of the calibre of work student journalists are capable of producing. And they have a backlog of advertisements they might use as the need arises.

Additional details. Students of the class were a formal part of the 1973 annual KPA convention program. They were alloted more than an hour of program time during which they explained background, strategy, creativity and the 35 ads that were shown in the final stages of camera-ready production. The board of directors of KPA then selected 12 advertisements from which slicks and mats were made. The class was given $200 for the project, which more than covered expenses. From the final make-ready stage 500 slicks of each of the 12 ads were produced for distribution. Printing cost of the slicks was less than $170.

The ads have been published extensively in Kansas newspapers and are still being used a year later.

Kansas Department of Economic Development Campaign

The next Triumvirate was the State of Kansas (specifically, the Department of Economic Development, of which the Lt. Governor is head), the Kansas Press Association, and again, the ad copy & layout class at K-State.

Without dwelling on the obvious relationships involved, let me background the problem:

Kansas is prohibited by statute from spending money for advertisements to promote the state within its own borders. There is a small advertising budget--$50,000 to $100,000--set aside for out-of-state promotion. The latter account is handled by a Topeka agency.

Briefly stated, the concerns of the Lt. Governor were (1) increasing out-migration of young people, (2) lack of appreciation of its residents of the "quality of life" benefits the state has to offer, (3) overcoming the negativitism many citizens have toward their own state, and (4) promoting a sense of pride, a positive attitude, toward Kansas as a good state in which to vacation, live, work, raise a family, etc.

The idea was presented to the Lt. Governor and the KPA officials with the theme that "We're all in this together--a state-supported institution, newspapers which feel an ethical-moral responsibility to support the state, and the KDED, which is specifically charged with this responsibility, but does not have the financial resources to get the job done effectively.

KPA officials agreed to distribute final slicks and mats to its members with a letter encouraging usage on a drop-in basis. KDED agreed to pay class expenses and to underwrite cost of final print production. The 500 repros of 10 ads from K-State cost less than $400. Mat costs for letterpress papers will be additional.

The benefits, again, are obvious. The class works with a "real" advertising campaign and sees the fruits of its labors used by professionals. KDED gets a quality campaign and media space (albeit random and unscheduled; there is an implied commitment to publication) for a negligible amount of money. And the Kansas Press become the "good guys" in this situation, running freebies that surely will attract more reader interest than 95 per cent of the advertisements they reach for to fill a hole or fulfill their public service obligation.

Ideas for Other Campaigns

--The executive director for The Kansas Committee for the Humanities, a federally funded project, has asked for help in communicating the meaning of their upcoming theme: "Changing Kansas Communities: Exploring the Role of Human Values in Shaping Public Policy." (Over a four-month period and three long orientation sessions, I haven't been able to understand the theme myself, so we are holding this one in abeyance.)

--Weight, Inc., a non-profit organization whose objectives are to train mental retardates to become independent, self-supporting individuals, has asked for help from the class agency.

--The areas of energy, pollution, the environment, state agencies, mental health organizations--all offer opportunities for creating campaigns that might be used by the media.

--What the class at K-State did for the newspaper profession, it could just as easily do for radio, or television, within the same organizational framework.

--A church-supported, or otherwise privately endowed institution, could create campaigns that might be published in official publications, or other promotional pieces.

--On strictly a problem-solving basis, the agency can take anyone's advertising-marketing problem and produce a campaign, or series of advertisements for them. The class at K-State is currently involved in creating a total concept image-building campaign for a local shopping center. We are also working for a travel agency, a large department store, a shoe store, an off-campus bookstore and a local beer distributor (hic!). The clients change from semester to semester (to this point, at our discretion.)

In summary. We tend to teach the way we were taught, or the way courses have been taught traditionally. As teachers, we sometimes show a depressing lack of innovativeness, or courage to experiment with new ideas or creative techniques, especially when we are functioning in an area where we ourselves are unsure.

It may sound like educationese, but maybe, just maybe, we need to re-examine each course we teach, with these questions in mind: Am I preparing these students for the "real" world? Is my course a solid link in their educational experience? Am I meeting their needs, both present and future?

I asked these questions. And I found myself lacking as a teacher--and the content of my course failing to meet student needs, defined and undefined. I changed. I swept out the old, the traditional. I took a chance. I experimented. It worked. It worked beautifully.

There are some shortcomings, some drawbacks to the method just described. And I'm trying to sort those out. But the enthusiasm, the excitement, the confidence generated in students by the new format for ad copy & layout at K-State more than compensates for whatever is left out. When a student, a group, or the class come to regard the teacher as an interruption to the task at hand--when the teacher need only "flip the switch" to get instant motivation, effort and quality performance, one senses something exciting is taking place in the realm of learning.

It happened to me in a class called Ad Copy & Layout.

HUMOR APPEALS AND ADVERTISING STRATEGY

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Total expenditures on advertising in the United States amount to staggering sums annually.[3] In view of these high stakes, it is important to investigate the efficacy of any type of appeal being widely used in the industry.

In recent months, there has been increased interest in the use of humorous content in advertising messages. As numerous researchers have pointed out, humor has been used in varying degree for many years[13,16] and, further, there is much research on the subject of humor reported in the literature of psychology, journalism, and speech;[2,5,6,7] however, there is in the literature of marketing very little reported research on the use of humor in advertising until the last few years.[17] Of the few articles on the subject, most do no more than give examples of the successful use of humorous advertising[1,4,12] or caution against risks perceived in its use.[14,18,19] A few individuals have formulated rules or guidelines for using humor in advertising.[8,9,10]

In a recent article which summarizes quite well the present status of humor in advertising, Brian Sternthal of Northwestern and C. Samuel Craig of Ohio State conclude that, although advertisers have employed humor extensively, relatively little is known about its efficacy as an instrument of persuasion in advertising.[15] Stated another way, the experimental studies which have been conducted involving humor and persuasion have not been undertaken in a marketing/advertising context. Hence, their generalizability to advertising is limited.

PURPOSE

Although little is known from an experimental standpoint, the assumption is made that advertising agencies, based on years of experience, have developed insights into the proper use of humorous appeals in advertising. The study described in this paper had as its purpose to survey advertising agencies in an attempt to formulate some tentative hypotheses for future research on humor, and to establish some humor heuristics for the advertising industry.

It was sought to gain answers to questions such as the following:

1. To what extent is humor being used in each of the major media today, as compared with five years ago?

2. Who determines that humor will be used in a given advertisement or advertising campaign? The sponsor, or the agency?

3. In the opinion of industry experts, what type of target audience responds best to humor? What adjectives describe the person who is most likely to respond favorably to humorous advertising?

4. What about placement? Where should the humor come, at the beginning, middle, or end of a message? Does placement vary by type of product?

5. Do agency personnel think humorous or nonhumorous ads are best for suspense, mystery shows? For situation comedy? Variety? Sports events? And so on.

6. Are humorous appeals more appropriate than nonhumorous appeals for selling goods, or services? Industrial goods or consumer goods? Convenience or shopping goods? National brands or private brands?

7. What kinds of research on humor would the advertising agencies themselves like to have?

METHODOLOGY

A mail questionnaire was sent to a random sample of 295 agencies which had been in business for at least five years (see appendix). Agency names and addresses, and names of the top executive of each, were obtained from a trade directory published five years ago. Undelivered questionnaires, signifying that a firm was no longer in business, were replaced by another randomly selected name. From a total of 77 replies (a response rate of 26%), 71 usable questionnaires were obtained.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The questionnaires received appear to be carefully completed, with full, thoughtful answers. Almost all were completed by the agency chairman, president, or a senior vice president. A few were filled out by creative directors or other agency personnel. Of those reporting, 26% had agency annual billings of under $1 million; 42%, $1 million to $5 million; and 32%, over $5 million.

Incidence of Humor

Among the major media, respondents believe that in the last five years humor has been used slightly more in the broadcast media, particularly television; and about the same or less in the print media, direct mail, and point of purchase advertising. In magazines, particularly, there is believed to be a decline. For percentage responses by medium, see Table 1.

Who Decides on Humor?

Agency executives were asked to indicate the method utilized at their agency in selecting appeals to be used in a client's advertising. From a set of four descriptive statements, respondents were asked to select the one which best described the procedure used at their agency. These statements are given below, with the percentage of responses for each:

1. "Agency suggests several alternative appeals and the client chooses one." (Italics added here for emphasis) 7%

2. "Client stipulates the use of a particular type of appeal" 4
3. "After a discussion of the merits of several appeals, agency and client decide together which appeal would be most appropriate". 44
4. "Agency stipulates the use of a particular type of appeal" . . 44

100%

In nine out of ten cases, the agency either stipulates the appeal to be used, or has a very strong influence on its selection. Only three agencies reported that the client stipulated the type of appeal to be used. Thus, the use of humor seems largely an agency determination.

TABLE 1

Media Usage of Humorous Advertising Appeals
As Compared with Five Years Ago

	More	Less	Same
Television	44%	24%	32%
Radio	44%	16%	40%
Outdoor Advertising	21%	29%	50%
Newspapers	11%	36%	53%
Magazines	18%	41%	41%
Point of Purchase	16%	31%	53%
Direct Mail	18%	31%	51%

Who Responds to Humor?

Terms most frequently mentioned to describe the idealized target recipient of humorous advertising included the following: "young," (45); "educated," (33); "males," (19); "westerners," (8); and "liberal," (7). Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of mentions. Less frequently mentioned terms included "females," (5); "less educated," (4); "easterners," (4); "southerners," (3); and "northerners," (3)

Thus, the profile for the typical "ideal audience member" for humorous advertising, as envisioned by agency respondents, is a "young, more educated, liberal male from the west."

Where to Put It?

Fifty two percent of the agency executives felt that the humor should be placed at the beginning of the message and 29% at the end. Only 5% prefer the middle of the message itself (see Table 2). As to whether such placement should vary according to product type, 64% say "no."

TABLE 2

Placement of Humorous Appeals in Advertising Messages

When you use humorous appeals, . . . do you usually place the humorous appeal at the beginning, middle, or end of the promotional message?

Beginning: 52%   Middle: 5%   End: 29%

Variable, no general rule to follow: 9%

Does the placement (at beginning, middle, or end) of a humorous appeal in an otherwise straightforward message, vary by product?

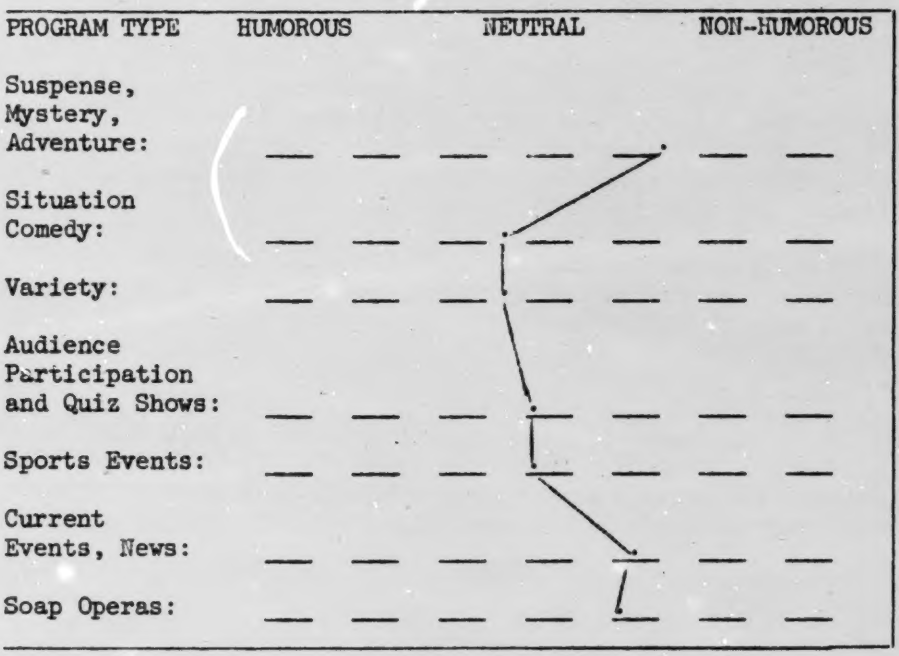
Yes: 36%   No: 64%

Programming

Agency men were asked whether they consider humorous advertising more appropriate for certain types of broadcast programming. The responses to these questions are presented graphically in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

Effectiveness of Humorous and Nonhumorous Appeals by Program Type



Appropriateness of Humor by Product Type

The ad men were asked their opinions as to greater appropriateness of humor for various classes of products. In a simple paired comparision test, they checked the product type in each pair for which humorous appeals were thought to be more appropriate than non-humorous appeals. The results are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3

Appropriateness of Humorous Advertising Appeals
by Product Type[a]

Humorous appeals are more appropriate than non-humorous appeals for:

Industrial goods	8%	or	92%	Consumer goods
Tangibles	58%	or	42%	Intangibles
Convenience goods	64%	or	36%	Shopping goods
National brands	70%	or	30%	Private brands
Goods	64%	or	36%	Services
Luxuries	66%	or	34%	Necessities
"Prestige" brands	44%	or	56%	"Non-prestige" brands

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[a] Percentages based on number responding to this question (ranges from 53 to 62 by pairs).

The strongest opinions are for consumer goods over industrial goods, national brands over private brands, convenience goods over shopping goods (and goods in general over services). Luxuries are thought to be more appropriately advertised with humor than are necessities. There seems less difference in opinion in the case of tangibles over intangibles, and "non-prestige" brands over "prestige" brands.

Suggestions for Further Research

When asked what kinds of research they would like to see performed on humor, agency respondents themselves gave numerous suggestions. The sales results of humorous advertising as compared with nonhumorous was most frequently mentioned. Its effect on level of awareness was mentioned several times, and also its effect on retention. Other types of wanted information included "how to use humor to build an image," "whether humor overshadows product recognition," "what kind of humor increases believability," and "whether brand recall is enhanced by humor."

One perceptive comment is worth quoting rather at length:

> I'd like to see a 'humor appreciation/understanding' rating by normal demographics. Also, an 'acceptable/unacceptable' rating by product/service 'situation' i.e., is it acceptable to poke fun at corporations, religion, government, social problems/causes, money/finance?

Also, what's considered in good/bad taste? How is one defined from the other? How do you measure the 'wear-out' factor of humorous advertising? Is it longer or shorter lived than the direct approach? Are there any 'sure fire' humorous approaches in advertising? What are they?

Additional Comments

As "parting shots," some respondents contributed interesting comments. A partial selection follows:

"People tend to use humor to be clever, not to sell;"
"Humor is dangerous (mentioned several times);"
"It is cruel;"
"Becomes old very fast;"
"Isn't good for retention purposes;"
"Most ad directors are scared of humor;"
"There's too much misuse of humor;"
"Humor is just too broad to study."

One respondent thinks the use of humor decreases, at first, as the economy worsens; but when conditions become extremely bad, he believes humorous concepts become more effective. The rationale of this theory is that our best known humorists were "very big" during the worst of times. As examples he cites Mark Twain, Will Rogers, Bob Hope, Jack Benny, and others. During wars and depressions, according to this respondent, "we need a laugh!"

CONCLUSIONS

It is believed that advertisers do have some knowledge of the efficiency of humor appeals and certainly this basic knowledge may serve as a strong foundation for future research in this area. The findings of this survey provide some heuristics on the effective use of a widely utilized advertising strategy. At least, it points in the directions to which future research should prove to be of benefit.

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PROMOTIONAL STRATEGY: ACCENT ON THE MOBILE CONSUMER

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Introduction

The subject of geographical mobility in the United States has provided the base for a multitude of research undertakings.[6,7,10,21,30,36] Economists, sociologists, and, more recently, marketers have devoted much of their energies and other resources in attempting to measure, understand and predict geographic mobility patterns and the influence that they have upon human behavior.[8,10,29] This interest can be appreciated in view of the following statement:

> Of the 199.0 million persons 1 year old and over living in the United States in March 1970, 36.5 million, or 18.4 percent, had been living at a different address in March 1969.... Of the 36.5 million persons who had moved between March 1969 and March 1970, 23.2 million had moved within counties, and 13.3 million between counties....[34]

This high rate of geographic mobility has many ramifications; however, this paper is concerned primarily with the implications for marketers and their promotional strategies. More specifically, it concerns itself with the relationship between the consumer's mobility and his receptivity to advertising messages. In this context, studies have shown that during a period of a year after moving, movers had higher rates of purchasing certain types of products than non movers.[12] Also many movers changed their retail patronage habits after moving.[8,16]

The main purpose of this paper is to outline the reasons why marketers should consider the "mover" market segment in developing promotional campaigns. Under this major heading, several related topics will be discussed in an effort to understand and predict the behavior of the mover. Included are: (1) a characterization of those consumers who will most likely move in the future; (2) why they move; (3) where they will be moving to; and (4) when these moves will take place.

The Mover Market

The term mover is generally given to a person or family that recently completed a move. The mover market segment is, in an economic sense, a very important one to advertisers.[1,2,3,4,5,8,17,33] The value of goods and services that can be purchased by approximately 20.0 percent of the population of this country should by itself make marketers take note. However, there are additional reasons for catering to the mover market. A positive association exists between geographical movement and consumption spending.[12,13] Families that move have a significantly higher rate of consumption, even with family size, income, age, and education of family head adjusted for, during the year they move.[12]

In a study published by Daniel Starch and Staff, it was reported that people who moved within one year prior to being interviewed acquired more small and large appliances than those not moving during the same period.[9] This study suggests that movers are more receptive to advertisements for durables than non movers. Producers of durables should therefore pay special attention to the mover market.

In addition to durable purchases, much has been written about the problems that mobility creates for retailers. When a family moves, the probability decreases that they will continue to shop at the same store(s) or even at one(s) that they were previously familiar with.[8,32,33] A move of even less than a mile encompasses a change in drive time to various stores.[16] Short distance moves are currently more likely to cause changes in store loyalty because of the energy crisis. Longer moves may create a complete breakdown in chain loyalty.[1,8,33]

In some cases, retailers find "new" customers moving into their market areas. In an effort to remain competitive, they must continually attract, and maintain, the newly-arrived consumer's business. This is especially true in areas with high rates of mobility, i.e., Houston (23.8), Los Angeles (27.4), etc.[23,25]

The economic importance of the mobile market segment has been confirmed by several authors. Marketers may want to selectively promote to the mover segment. In order to do so, it would be helpful to outline the results of U.S. Government Census studies that attempted to characterize the mover.

Mover Characteristics

Do people who move have some characteristic(s) that differentiates them from those who do not? The following discussion will attempt to answer this question. Female movers are not directly referred to in this discussion because as DaVanzo points out:

> Most empirical studies of migration...only look at the migration behavior of males. I have seen no study which explicitly analyzes the migration of women. Most authors dispense with this issue by saying that women migrate along with their husbands.... However,... it is hard to believe that they have no say whatsoever in their husband's decision whether to move and, if so, where. Migration should be viewed as a family decision, since a family usually moves as a unit.[10]

The exclusion of females from the discussion is not a serious drawback in viewing the family unit because wives are similar to their husbands in social status, age, etc. Therefore females, via the discussion of their husbands, are indirectly considered.

Occupation. Differences in mobility exist among general occupational classifications. Census figures suggest that males in the white collar category move long distances (inter county) more frequently than persons in other occupational groupings; members of the manual occupational group move short distances (intra county) more often.[34]

Education. On the national level, variations in short distance mobility rates among educational groups appear negligible; however, long distance mobility rates are related to educational attainment. Those heads of households who were college educated had the highest incidence of long distance mobility.[34]

Income. On an aggregate basis the income variable does not discriminate movers from non movers. For example, the incidence of both long and short distance mobility is almost evenly divided among a wide range of low and middle income categories.[34]

Age. Geographical movement and age are related. This relation applies to both short and long distance mobility for males eighteen and older. Those males in their late teens and early twenties moved more frequently than those older.[34]

The census information discussed indicates that, on a national basis, it is difficult to discriminate a potential mover from a non mover. However, if such characterizations are made on the local or even regional basis, identification of future movers can be more clearly made.[6,15,18,19,21,22,24,26,27,28] The discussion of local and regional predictions is given below.

The Whys and Wheres of Mobility

Most of the studies that deal with the whys and wheres of mobility refer to two categories of movement, long and short distance mobility.[34] Because, as a group, recent long distance movers are more likely to make short distance moves in the future,[23,25] only inter county moves will be considered in this discussion.

A family's rationale for moving a long distance is generally formed because they perceive some positive economic,[6,10,11,14,15,18,19,22,24,26,27,28] social,[15,19] and/or climatic[15,19] differentials at the proposed destination. Also, all else being equal, families will be more likely to move to areas nearer their origin than to those farther away.[15,19,21,24,31]

Generally, the characteristics of movers, such as socioeconomic level, to a particular area can be predicted by examining the "differentials" of various areas.[18]

In other words an area offering higher real wages for people with certain skills will likely attract segments of the populations from areas that offer lower incomes.[18,22] For example, Bell found that among the recent movers to a particular area, 82.0 percent of the household heads were college educated and nearly 90.8 percent were white collar workers.[3] Andreasen's findings were similar to Bell's.[1]

Under the heading of economic differentials are differences in real wages for various skills between areas, and unemployment levels. Some theorize that people who have "invested" much "capital" into their educations and training are more prone to move to areas with more economic opportunity because of a need to recover their investment.[10,11,27,29,36]

Social differentials of an area include: recreational, educational and other social facilities provided by government as well as private industry and nature. Greenwood and Sweetland point out in regard to areas providing good educational opportunities:

> Better educated individuals are more likely to move to such areas than elsewhere, and less likely to move away from such areas, because the demand for educated persons is likely to be greater, because educational opportunities for their children are likely to be better, and because they are likely to find certain amenities in such localities that are deemed important by well educated persons.[15]

These authors also report that many less educated persons would not respond, by moving, to this same differential.

Climatic differences explain much of the movement to areas of frequent sunshine, little temperature variation, and milder winters from areas with less enjoyable climates.

The influence of distance upon mobility between various areas has been thoroughly examined in the literature. Some theorize that distance reduces the flow of information from one geographic area to another and, at the same time, increases the cost of the move.[16,21]

By examining the economic, social, climatic, and distance differentials of various locales, the marketer is in a better position to determine where families will move. The perceived magnitude of the differentials will provide information about the rate of movement. Also, the marketer is in a better position to predetermine the socioeconomic, life style, and life cycle characteristics of future residents of the market areas. The areas from where these families originate can also be determined. The consumption behavior of various socioeconomic, life style and life cycle groups has been extensively examined in marketing related literature. Also, the variation in regional preferences has been confirmed.[20,35] Therefore, the consumer behavior of the "new" arrivals can be estimated more accurately. Those manufacturers as well as retailers can thereby design marketing strategies that will be attractive to the new consumers.

Mobility Fluctuations

In order for marketers to implement a possible promotional campaign in an effort to influence the mover favorably, it will be important to determine if there are seasonal fluctuations in geographical movement.

The literature indicates that most people move during the summer season. For example, the Progressive Grocer study found peak geographical movement during the months of June, July, August and September.[8]

In addition to these studies, the North American Van Lines suggested that fifty-five percent of their business was conducted between May 25 and September 30. Allied Van Lines also reported similar findings.

One of the major reasons that people who move choose to do so during the summer months is attributed to the fact that they prefer to keep their children in the same school until vacation time. However, it should be pointed out that climatic conditions in the North are such that people prefer warmer temperature conditions when moving.[8]

Conclusions

The above discussion indicates that the mover market is an important one to the marketer. This segment accounts for nearly one fifth of the population of the United States, and it has a higher consumption function than non movers. Marketers attempting to promote to this group should consider: (1) who the mover is; (2) where he is moving to; (3) why he is moving, and (4) when he will move.

These considerations are best determined by examining the economic, social, climatic, and distance differentials of various locales. It is also important to note that most people move during the summer months. Marketers interested in directing promotional messages to the mover should determine the areas of this country that are especially attractive to the mobile consumer. Finally, the warm months may be the best time to advertise to this important consumer.

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BRAND AND SLOGAN AWARENESS OF ADOLESCENTS

by
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Marketers have focused the thrust of many promotional efforts on adolescents (defined in this paper as individuals between 12 and 18 years of age). Frequently, the objective of these promotional efforts is increased awareness of the brands of products offered for sale by the sponsor of the promotional effort.

In order to assure maximum return for the marketers' efforts, it seems necessary to assess the degree to which the awareness objective is accomplished. In the case of adolescents, attention on awareness should be focused on two questions:

1. Are adolescents aware of the seller's brand or the slogans used to carry the brand message?
2. Are certain segments of the adolescent market more aware of brands and slogans than others?

In order to provide answers to these two questions, a questionnaire study was designed and conducted among a random sample of Columbus, Ohio, high school students. The results of this study provide the basis for the design of a profile of adolescents who are most aware of brands and slogans. In addition, the differences observed between adolescent awareness of different brands and slogans are examined.

METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire was constructed to measure the criterion variables of brand and slogan awareness and several predictor variables (age, income, sex, social class, mass media exposure, and opinion leadership).

Measurement of Brand Awareness

Brand awareness was assessed by asking respondents to identify twenty brand names. For example, respondents were asked to furnish the type of product which is identified with the brand name, Ultra Brite. As show in Table I, ninety-eight percent of the respondents correctly identified Ultra Brite as a brand of toothpaste.

The wide variation in adolescent awareness of the examined brands reflects the range of brands chosen. Brands representing different types of products were selected, including several products, such as paint or butter, generally not used by adolescents.

The manufacturers of several of these brands may wish to reevaluate their promotional objectives in regard to the adolescent market. The brands, such as Glidden, Villager, or Ansco, may be jeopardizing future sales by not emphasizing adolescent awareness of their brands. However, managerial judgment and experience must be used when evaluating the cost of securing brand awareness in the adolescent market and the expected long-run sales from such a market.

TABLE I

Adolescent Awareness by Brand

Brand	Type of Product	Percentage of Respondents Identifying*
Ultra Brite	Toothpaste	98%
Phase II	Soap	96
Anaçin	Headache remedy	93
Captain Crunch	Cereal (ice cream)	93
Mogen David	Wine	90
Clearasil	Facial medication	89
Clairol	Hair care	87
Vega	Automobile	60
State Farm	Automobile insurance	60
Spaulding	Sporting goods	53
Land o' Lakes	Dairy products	48
Tijuana Smalls	Cigars	42
HIS	Clothing	41
Bulova	Timepieces	40
Swank	Men's jewelry	26
Botany 500	Men's clothing	17
Glidden	Paint	10
Villager	Women's clothing	9
Ansco	Photography equipment	3

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*Percentages are rounded to nearest percent.

Slogan Awareness

Respondents were asked to complete the ten slogans shown in Table II. The results of this measure were used as an indication of slogan awareness.

As noted above for brands, slogans were chosen which covered different types of products and expected degrees of familiarity among adolescents. The range of sample proportion correctly completing the slogan (29% to 88%) suggests that the slogans chosen have different degrees of familiarity among adolescents.

Respondent mis-identification of several slogans implies that some current efforts of marketers may be more beneficial to competitors than themselves. Some respondents tend to connect the wrong company or brand with a slogan. The "Fire yours, Hire ours," "Choosey Mothers Choose __________," and

Join the Unhooked Generation' slogans were most plagued by this problem. Approximately one of every five respondents connected each of these slogans with the brand of a competitor. Reevaluation of the promotional programs of these advertisers may be in order, assuming that slogan awareness of adolescents is an objective of their promotion campaign.

TABLE II

Adolescent Slogan Awareness

Slogan	Company or Brand Name	Percentage Identifying*
_________, the uncola	Seven-Up	88%
Choosey Mothers Choose _______	Jif	79%
Family in distress...calling the man from_________	Glad	77
Sit right down and get your _________ worth	Campbell's	68
The Green Phantom	Scope	63
Be Careful How You Use It	Hai Karate	59
Join the Unhooked Generation	American Heart Association	55
Fire yours, hire ours	Right Guard	47
You can be sure if it's a	Westinghouse	41
This is the _______ Moment	L & M	29

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*Percentages are rounded off.

Measurement of Predictor Variables

It was hypothesized that brand and slogan awareness are a function of (1) age, (2) income, (3) sex, (4) social class, (5) exposure to mass media, and (6) opinion leadership.

Sex, age, and adolescent income

The measurement of the first three of these six predictor variables was relatively straightforward. Respondents were asked to indicate their sex, age, and average weekly earnings. Male adolescents and those with the highest weekly earnings were expected to identify more brands and slogans than other respondents.

The exact nature of the expected relationship between brand awareness and age of respondents was not hypothesized, as previous research has provided support for positive as well as negative relationships between age and brand (slogan) awareness (Katz and Rose, 1969; Ward and Robertson, 1970). It was simply hypothesized that age and brand awareness would be related.

Social class

Hollingshead's Index of Social Position was used to determine social class of respondents. This index consists of a weighted scaling of the occupation and education level of the respondent's father. The scale for measurement of both occupation and education is such that the higher the scale value, the lower the class of the respondent. It is important to be aware of the nature of these scaled values when evaluating the results of the survey.

Existing research evidence provided by Guest (1942) and Larson and Wales (1970) support the postulation of greatest brand awareness for adolescents in the upper class and the least brand awareness for adolescents in the lower class. Logically, the increased literacy rate, shopping effort, and resources availability may provide upper class adolescents with greater ability to gather and assimilate brand and slogan identification information than that of their lower class counterparts.

Mass media exposure

The brand awareness of adolescents who are exposed the longest amount of time to different scources of mass media--television, radio, newspapers, and magazines--should be greater than those who are exposed less to mass media. This relationship is expected because mass media frequently serve as carriers of brand and slogan information.

The expected relation between mass media exposure and brand awareness may not materialize if media exposure is not directly linkable to receipt of product information. For example, adolescents spending many hours viewing television may screen out commercial messages of all advertisers and, as a result, be less aware of brand names and slogans. This ability to screen out commercial messages may depend on the type of media to which adolescents are exposed. The break in programming in broadcast media generally makes the approach of a commercial message apparent, while print media may not provide a similar forewarning of commercials, as no break in the printed material is evident.

Broadcast media exposure of respondents was determined by examining the average number of hours spent watching television and listening to the radio. Respondents were asked for average hours of television and radio exposure for an average day during the week and the weekend. Television and radio exposure habits were investigated for the two time periods, since the different situations experienced by adolescents during the week and on weekends may result in wide variations in broadcast media exposure patterns. For example, an adolescent who works on weekends will probably have fewer available hours for broadcast media exposure during the weekend. Examination of television viewing habits for the two periods, weekdays and weekends, supported the expected variations for the two periods, although relatively high correlation (gamma = +.73) was found. Similarly, radio exposure for weekends and weekdays was significant and positively related (gamma = +.89).

Print media exposure was defined to include exposure to newspapers and magazines. A measure of frequency of readership of different newspapers and magazines was constructed. For each newspaper or magazine provided, the respondent was asked to indicate his frequency of readership. The choices ranged from "never read" to "almost always read."

Opinion leadership

The final criterion variable consisted of a measure of opinion leadership. The role of personal opinion influencers has been given increased recognition by students of social processes. The research of Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) and Summers (1970) has been influential in moving the role of opinion leaders to the forefront of consumer behavior research.

The importance of the "opinion leaders" to marketers depends on their reception and perception of business-sponsored promotional messages. Marketers must influence these opinion leaders in order to influence these opinion leaders in order to influence the followers of these opinion leaders.

In order to determine the relative level of brand awareness of these opinion leaders, opinion leadership was measured and related to brand awareness. Eight self-designation items were used to determine whether or not respondents were opinion leaders. Each of these items enabled the respondent to indicate the likelihood of his being used as a personal information source for different products (such as movies, phonographs, or stereo tapes).

Sample

A multistage technique was used to select the 1280 respondents. Columbus, Ohio, secondary schools were divided into junior and senior high strata. Five schools were randomly selected from each of these two strata. Finally, two homerooms were selected from each grade level in the selected schools.

Statistical Analysis

The effects of the six predictor variables on brand and slogan awareness were investigated by examining the degree of association between each predictor variable and brand (slogan) awareness. Goodman and Kruskal's coefficient of association (gamma) was used to determine the degree of association between the predictor and criterion variables. The gamma coefficient as described in Freeman (1965) was selected because it was deemed to fit the nature of the data (ordinal scaled). The use of Pearson Product Moment correlation was dismissed as inappropriate, despite previous use of it in brand awareness research.

After determination of the gamma coefficient for each combination of criterion and predictor variables, the size of gamma was used to determine if a significant relationship existed. Moreover, the statistical significance of the Chi-square statistic for each relationship was examined. The relationships considered to be statistically significant were those where the value of gamma and chi-square exceeded the expected value when the rejection region (alpha level) was set at .05.

RESULTS

Brand and slogan awareness appear to overlap, as the two were significantly and positively related (gamma = +.30). However, discrepancies were found between the relationships of the predictor variable with brand awareness and those for slogan awareness.

Brand Awareness

The gamma coefficients which resulted when the predictor variables were related to brand and slogan awareness are presented in Table III. As indicated, most of the predictor variables are significantly related to brand awareness.

The gamma coefficients reported for brand awareness in Table III suggests greatest brand awareness among:

(1) older adolescents,
(2) adolescents earning the highest weekly incomes,
(3) male adolescents,
(4) adolescents whose parents are in the upper social class,
(5) adolescents who spend the least time watching television and the most time reading newspapers and magazines, and
(6) opinion leaders.

These relationships agreed with most of those hypothesized. Only in the case of television exposure did the relationship contradict expectations. Broadcast exposure does not appear to result in the receipt of information about the brands examined in this study. In the case of television, broadcast media exposure detracted from brand awareness.

TABLE III

Association Between Predictor Variables and Brand (Slogan) Awareness**

Predictor Variable	Brand Awareness	Slogan Awareness
Age	.26*	-.07*
Income	.15*	-.02
Sex	-.13*	-.01
Social Class	-.20*	-.10*
Television Viewership-Weekdays	-.13*	+.06*
-Weekends	-.14*	+.07*
Radio Listenership-Weekdays	.03	-.01
-Weekends	.01	.02
Newspaper readership	.16*	.16*
Magazine readership	.20*	.19*
Opinion leadership	.13*	.13*

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*$p < .05$

**Gamma coefficients are assumed to be positive unless shown as negative.

Age and brand awareness

As discussed above, older (senior high school) adolescents correctly identified more brands than those in junior high school. Although learning of brands may be generally correlated with age, the observed relationships between brand awareness and age of adolescent depended on the particular brand investigated (see Table IV). As shown in Column 2 of Table IV, three brands, Anacin, Glidden, and Land o'Lakes, were known less frequently by older adolescents. In the case of Anacin, younger adolescents were more aware of the brand.

Income and brand awareness

Knowledge of brands appears to depend on available income. Generally, greater brand awareness is found to accompany higher incomes. However, the sellers of Ultra Brite toothpaste and Land o'Lakes butter should not assume that adolescents with low income are less aware of their brands than those with high incomes. The gamma coefficients reported in Column 3 of Table IV suggest a significant negative relationship exists between these brands and income. In the case of two other brands (Captain Crunch, and Phase II), no significant relationship was found with amount of income.

Sex and brand awareness

The relationship found between total brand awareness and the sex of the adolescent depends greatly on the brand investigated. Although total brand awareness was found to be greatest for male adolescents, female awareness was generally greater than that of males for eight of the twenty brands used in the study. An examination of Column 4, Table IV, shows that the brands for which female awareness was highest included brands such as Halo, Clairol, and Villager, which are generally considered to be products used mostly be females.

Social class and brand awareness

An examination of Table IV (Column 5) reveals that upper class adolescents were not able to identify all brands better than middle or lower class adolescents. Spaulding was a brand which enjoys greater awareness among the lower classes than the upper class. Moreover, awareness of Phase II and Glidden is not significantly related to social class.

Mass media exposure and brand awareness

The negative relationship between television exposure and brand awareness tends to prevail for most brands. The only brand for which greatest awareness was found among adolescents who spend the most time watching television is Phase II. Moreover, this relationship held only for weekday television viewing. Although no significant relationship was observed between weekday viewership and the brands of Captain Crunch, Ultra Brite, Anacin, Tijuana Smalls, and Mogen David, significant relationships are encountered for weekend television viewership.

Radio exposure

No significant association was reported between brand awareness and radio listenership in Table III. However, more than one half of the coefficients

TABLE IV

Association (Gamma Coefficients) of Predictor Variable and Correct Identification of Brands **

PREDICTOR VARIABLES

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
					TV - Viewership		Radio Listenership		Newspaper Readership	Magazine Readership	Opinion Leadership
Brand	Age	Income	Sex	Social class	Weekdays	Weekends	Weekdays	Weekends			
Captain Crunch	.09*	.05	.32*	-.10*	-.01	-.38*	.21*	-.08*	.45*	.36*	.06*
Ultra Brite	.36*	-.07*	.46*	-.06*	-.01	-.29*	.07*	.26*	.61*	.67*	-.02
Swank	.26*	.17*	-.16*	-.16*	-.11*	-.14*	.12*	.05	.02	.22*	.09*
Halo	.23*	.23*	.48*	-.08*	-.11*	-.20*	.10*	.02	.43*	.15*	.01
His	.52*	.31*	-.04	-.26*	-.21*	-.31*	.14*	.11*	.22*	.19*	.07*
Anacin	-.07*	.22*	.28*	-.22*	.01	-.11*	.25*	.22*	.38*	.22*	-.01
Phase II	.24*	.02	.51*	.05	.23*	-.16*	.28*	.33*	.18*	.33*	.09*
Ansco	.55*	.27*	-.46*	-.31*	-.22*	-.41*	-.15*	.07*	.14*	.12*	.17*
Glidden	.02	.10*	-.27*	-.01	-.12*	-.08*	.05	-.09*	.07*	.03	.04
Land o' Lakes	.02	-.06*	-.10*	-.12*	-.03	-.01	.02	.04	.15*	.29*	.05
Bulova	.37*	.19*	-.31*	-.22*	-.18*	-.24*	-.03	-.03	.17*	.23*	.06*
Tijuana Smalls	.19*	.13*	-.19*	-.13*	.02	-.08*	.04	.01	.17*	.27*	.05
Botany 500	.25*	.18*	-.12*	-.18*	-.13*	-.14*	.07*	-.03	.31*	.21*	-.05

State Farm	.36*	.15*	-.18*	-.08*	-.16*	-.21*	-.01	-.01	.22	.14*	-.01
Clairol	.11*	.07*	.48*	-.11*	-.10*	-.13*	.08*	.09*	.19*	.31*	.09*
Villager	.53*	.13*	.43*	-.35*	-.32*	-.42*	.10*	.15*	.13*	.27*	.21*
Spaulding	.14*	.07*	-.38*	.22*	-.13*	-.05	.01	-.15*	.21*	.13*	.08*
Mogen David	.19*	.12*	-.12*	-.21*	.00	-.13*	.07*	.01	.03	.27*	.01
Vega	.28*	.12*	-.45*	-.21*	-.11*	-.18*	-.02	.03	.20*	.19*	-.01
Clearasil	.13*	.25*	.34*	-.15*	-.24*	-.32*	.08*	.13*	.26*	.30*	.11*

* $p < .05$

** Gamma coefficients which are underlined in table contradict coefficients found for predictor variable and total brand awareness.

(shown in Column 8 and 9 of Table IV) found for radio listenership and each of the twenty brands are significant. Most of the significant relationships are positive, thus allowing an assumption of increased awareness for many brands among those adolescents who spend the most time listening to the radio.

Print readership

The relationships between print media exposure and awareness of individual brands were consistent with the relationships found for total brand awareness. As shown in Table IV, only in the cases of Swank and Mogen David were brand awareness and frequency of newspaper readership not positively related. Glidden was the only brand for which magazine readership was not positively related.

Opinion leadership and brand awareness

Although most brands were more readily identified by opinion leaders, awareness of several of the brands (Ultra Brite, Anacin, Botany 500, State Farm, and Vega) was negatively related to opinion leadership. However, these relationships were not found to be significant. In comparison to non-opinion leaders, adolescent opinion leaders appear to be equally aware of some brands and more aware of other brands.

Slogan Awareness

Slogan awareness and brand awareness are not to be considered measures of the same characteristic. Only in the cases of the predictor variables of social class, radio exposure, print media exposure and opinion leadership were similar relationships encountered for both brand awareness and slogan awareness (see Table III). Age is negatively related to slogan awareness instead of positively as encountered for brand awareness. Television viewership was found to be negatively related to brand awareness but positively related to slogan awareness. In the case of the predictor variables of income and sex, brand awareness, but not slogan awareness, was found to be significantly related.

In short, greatest slogan awareness was observed among adolescents:

(1) in junior high school,
(2) in the upper class,
(3) who spend the most hours watching television,
(4) exposed most frequently to print media, and
(5) who are opinion leaders.

Age and slogan awareness

The nature of the relationships between age of adolescents and awareness of each of the ten slogans used in the study are shown in Table V, Column 2. Older adolescents were found to be less likely to identify slogans in general and the Jif, Campbell's, Scope, and Right Guard slogans in particular. Other slogans, especially those of Seven-Up and Westinghouse, may be learned with age, as positive relationships between these brands and age were encountered.

Income and slogan awareness

Slogan awareness was generally unrelated to the amount of adolescent income. However, significant relationships were observed for one-half of the slogans (see Table V, Column 3). Interestingly, adolescents with highest incomes were more aware of "the Uncola" and "man from Glad" and less aware of "Sit right down," the "Green Phantom," and "Fire yours" than earners of lower income.

Sex and slogan awareness

Eight of the ten slogans used in the study were significantly related to the sex of the adolescent. However, the total slogan awareness of adolescents was not significantly related to sex of adolescents; some of the slogans were best known by males, while others were best known by females. As might be expected based on the nature of the products, the Hai Karate slogan was best known by males while the slogans of Jif, Campbell's, and Scope were best known by females.

Social class and slogan awareness

As shown in Column 5 of Table V, lower class adolescents were more likely to identify the cigarette (L & M) and mouthwash (Scope) slogans. In addition, the identification of the slogans for Campbell's, Right Guard, and Westinghouse is not related to the social class of adolescents.

Mass media and slogan awareness

Most slogans were more readily identified by adolescents with the greatest exposure to mass media (see Table V). Similar to relationships observed for brand awareness, all slogans were more likely to be identified by those who read print media the most frequently.

Awareness of several of the slogans was negatively related to television exposure. It is interesting to note that the Glad, Unhooked Generation, and Westinghouse slogans were least recognized by adolescents who spent the most time viewing television. This finding is especially important to the sponsors of slogans which are aired on television.

Opinion leadership and slogan awareness

The nature of the relationships between opinion leadership and awareness of the ten slogans, as shown in Table V, Column 12, was generally positive. Only the slogans of Hai Karate and Right Guard experienced as high awareness among non-opinion leaders as among opinion leaders.

SUMMARY

The results of a questionnaire survey of 1280 Columbus, Ohio, high school students suggest that brand and slogan awareness are dependent on the age, social class, and amount of print media readership of adolescents. Moreover, brand and slogan awareness was found to be related to the incidence of opinion

TABLE V

Association (Gamma coefficients) of Predictor Variables and Correct Identification of Slogans **

PREDICTOR VARIABLES

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
					TV-Viewership		Radio Listenership		News-paper Read-ship	Magazine Reader-ship	Opini Leade ship
Slogans	Age	Income	Sex	Social Class	Weekdays	Weekends	Weekdays	Weekends			
The Uncola	.17*	.12*	.15*	-.08*	-.01	-.02	.03	.13*	.28*	.30*	.06*
Choosey Mothers	-.14*	-.01	.14*	-.15*	.08*	..12*	.10*	.03	.16*	.22*	.04
Family in Distress	.05	.08*	.01	-.13*	-.08*	-.10*	-.03	.00	.15*	.17*	.10*
Sit Right Down	-.23*	-.13*	.10*	.01	.14*	.18*	.00	.04	.03	.05	.04
Green Phantom	-.22*	-.07*	.14*	.09*	.16*	.23*	.04	.06*	.09*	.12*	.10*
Be careful how you use it	.01	.05	-.11*	-.07*	.01	.00	-.10*	-.06*	.11*	.10*	.00
Join the unhooked generation	.08*	.05	-.23*	-.19*	-.14*	-.12*	-.08*	.04	.11*	.09*	.06*
Fire yours	-.15*	-.08*	.10*	.00	.23*	.15*	.05	.06*	.05	.05	-.02
You can be sure	.10*	.02	-.09	±.05	-.06	-.12*	.07*	.04	.05	.06*	.05
This is the______ Moment	.00	-.03	-.03	.18*	.11*	.00	.09*	.00	.13*	.27*	.17

* p < .05

** Gamma coefficients which are underlined in table contradict coefficients found for predictor variabl and total slogan awareness.

leadership. Brand and slogan awareness was greatest among opinion leaders, adolescents in the upper class, and adolescents who spent the most time reading newspapers and magazines.

Several important differences were observed between brand and slogan awareness of adolescents. Brand awareness appeared to increase with age, while the reverse relationship held for slogan awareness. Also, the amount of television exposure had a completely different impact on brand awareness from that on slogan awareness. Slogan awareness increased with increased television viewing, while brand awareness was least among those who watch television infrequently.

The results of examination of the relationships between the predictor variables and adolescent identification of each brand or slogan suggest that measures of total brand or slogan awareness should be constructed and interpreted cautiously. Many of the relationships found for individual brands or slogans were cancelled by opposing relationships when total brand or slogan awareness was considered. For example, sex was a predictor variable found to be related to total brand awareness. Eight of the twenty brands in the study were more recognizable to female adolescents, while eleven of the brands were most familiar to males. Similarly, males were more aware of three of the slogans, although female awareness was greater for five of the other slogans. Variations in awareness of individual brands (or slogans) were also found for the other predictor variables. The most consistent relationship was that brand and slogan awareness was greatest for adolescents who spent the most time reading newspapers and magazines.

It is desirable that slogans and brands used in a measure of total awareness should be considered as items which may or may not be related in the same manner. Without consideration of the individual relationship between predictor variables and awareness of individual brands and slogans, many erroneous conclusions about brand or slogan awareness may be drawn.

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END OF SESSION VIII

PERSPECTIVES ON THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ADVERTISING

The Next Two Years

by
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Department of Advertising
Michigan State University
and
President, American Academy of Advertising

First, my heartfelt thanks to all those who assisted in making this conference a success. Would that I could be so eloquent as to fully convey my deep appreciation to each and everyone who is helping to build the Academy into a sturdy, productive, and respected organization. It is also an appropriate moment to give special thanks to Steve Greyser for his outstanding leadership the past two years. Connie Hill, too, deserves high praise for his magnificent performance as general chairman of the conference. And to the session chairmen, officers, and participants--a toast to you all:

> "The world is good and the people are good,
> And we are all good fellows together."

The Academy is alive and well. Our membership is expanding. Our finances are sound. Our mission is more essential today than ever before. Any assessment of the Academy could only conclude that, in the words of Leibnitz, "the present is great with the future."

Looking ahead, what are some activities the Academy might consider doing during the next two years?

As you know, planning is the art of designing programs of action which specify goals and describe the means for their attainment in terms of time, money, and effort. My plans, I'm afraid, currently resemble those of the new manager who said, "Of course I have plans; I just don't know what they are as yet.' Thus, what I shall outline are some personal hopes which may emerge as action programs. I need your advice and support in evolving a reasonable set of goals prior to defining the programs to attain them.

Our long term goals, as I see them are:

1. to promote the art and the science of advertising
2. to improve education in advertising and its correlates
3. to provide a means for meeting the unique needs of our membership, some of which are common to the entire group and others which center around special interests.

My short range hopes can be stated more specifically. All are aimed toward strengthening the Academy by achieving what I feel are worthwhile purposes. Please regard them as suggestions at this time. Some lack substance, some need definition; all are subject to your criticism and revision. By all means, let me know of other goals you think should be pursued.

1. Membership Expansion

We need to reach out to every educator who has an interest in advertising and enlist in our ranks. More representation is needed from all sectors: business administration, journalism and communications, and from junior colleges. More women are needed. There is a critical need to attract more minority members. Thanks to membership chairman Lou Wolters, the stage has been set for vigorous action.

2. Industry Relations

We need to expand and strengthen our relations with all segments of the industry: agencies, media, advertisers, service organizations, and their associations. There can no longer be any question of mutual benefits... but there is still a need for greater awareness and interaction to fully realize the potential for the common good.

3. Relations with AMA, AEJ, and ADS

My philosophy of advertising education is simple--it is needed. Any organization which promotes and improves the discipline deserves support. Thus I'm delighted to work hard for the Academy. At the same time I think it essential to work both with and within the American Marketing Association, the Association for Education in Journalism, and Alpha Delta Sigma to advance the cause. Most Academy members belong to other groups; this is as it should be. Let us work together to build stronger relationships to achieve common goals. There is a need for a vigorous program to unify educators involved in advertising education. The Academy can be the catalyst.

4. Certification

AMA President Bill Lazer asked me to sound out Academy members as to the possibility of establishing some sort of certification for practitioners in marketing and advertising. We are evolving into a profession. We should not wait for the practitioners to set standards. A profession connotes a foundation of science and a motive of service, including: (1) the practice must rest on a systematic body of knowledge of substantial intellectual content plus skill in applying to specific cases; (2) there must exist standards of professional conduct; (3) there must be an association which enforces standards; and (4) there must be a prescribed way of entering the practice. We do not meet conditions 2, 3, and 4 as yet; certification could be a step forward.

5. Clearinghouse of Ideas and Information

Publication and communication are essential to any discipline. I rejoice in the fact that the Journal of Advertising is making its mark. It deserves our vigorous support. I would also hope we can expand our newsletter in size and frequency so as to provide linkage with one another on a variety of topics. The annual conference should continue to be a prime medium for interaction and inspiration.

6. Public Relations

Many of us are in units which teach courses in mass communications, public communications, public relations, and marketing communications. The subject-matter commonalities with advertising are far more similar than disparate. Cannot the Academy do more to accommodate these areas? For the first time this year we had a session for those interested in public relations. There is no question that public relations education, for example, has need for a better defined and accepted educational model which in itself could help to better define the practice.

7. Advocacy of Research

The wide wonderful world of research, theory, and methods is second only to effective teaching in importance. Advertising theory and methods is as yet primitive. We should not look to practitioners to contribute significantly. The range of papers presented at this conference is proof positive that we can and are contributing to knowledge. Our membership includes those from a variety of disciplines--behavioral sciences, economics, systems theory, and others--who can focus a wealth of talent on advertising problems. We need to systematize and cross-fertilize. The Academy must strongly advocate and support member research by every possible means, especially in attracting financial support. The Academy should assist in communicating research findings within and without academia.

8. Recognition

Advertising education has come a long way. Unfortunately, it has not achieved the status and recognition accorded to many other disciplines yet is justly deserved. In short, we must do more to blow our horn. Sure, recognition must be earned; I happen to believe we have earned far more than is commonly recognized. The Academy can certainly be a facilitating agent in upgrading the status of advertising education.

Last, it is a privilege to have the opportunity to serve you. The welfare of the Academy is close to my heart. Your help is absolutely essential if we are to advance. All ideas, all suggestions, all requests to be of service will be warmly welcomed. Just fire away.

My best wishes to you all.

DELEGATES AT 1974 AAA CONFERENCE

Ahlgren, Herbert
Assn. Nat'l Advertisers

Ainsworth, Harry
U. of Arkansas

Alspaugh, Lilyan M.
Central Michigan U.

Anderson, Robert L.
U. of South Florida

Atkin, Kenward L.
Michigan State U.

Authier, Leighton
Providence Journal

Barban, Arnold M.
U. of Illinois

Bateman, J. Carroll
President, Insurance
Information Institute

Birchmore, Melinda T.
U. of Illinois

Bogart, Leo
Newspaper Adver. Bureau

Boyd, Robert S.
Virginia Commonwealth U.

Brisk, Melvin J.
Crain Communications

Buchwald, Elias
Burson-Marsteller

Byrne, Blake
WJAR-TV, Providence

Cabral, Jack
U. of Rhode Island

Calhoun, Fenton E.
California State U.

Cannon, Zane
Western Michigan U.

Caperton, Emily
Advertising Council

Coe, Barbara J.
New York U.

Cohen, Dorothy
Hofstra U.

Colihan, William J.
Criterion Advertising

Crumley, Wilma
U. of Nebraska

Culley, James D.
U. of Delaware

Curtis, Carol
Arizona State U.

Del Mar, John L.
American Assn. of
Advertising Agencies

Duker, Jacob M.
U. of Connecticut

Dunn, S. Watson
U. of Illinois

Evans, Richard H.
Syracuse U.

Everett, Robert G.
Leo Burnett Company

Ferraresi, David
U. of Rhode Island

Fletcher, Alan D.
U. of Tennessee

Fritchen, Dean H.
Advertising Council

Fryburger, Vernon
Northwestern U.

Fudge, Jr., William G.
U. of South Florida

Furse, David H.
Michigan State U.

Gibbs, William E.
Penn State U.

Gifford, John B.
Miami U., Ohio

Gitlitz, Jonah
American Advertising
Federation

Goodrich, Joseph
Providence Journal

Greyser, Stephen A.
Harvard Business School

Haefner, James E.
U. of Illinois

Harrington, Mary
U. of Rhode Island

Hasenjaeger, John
Boston College

Hattwick, Melvin S.
Colorado State U.

Hendon, Donald W.
Columbus College, Georgia

Hileman, Donald G.
U. of Tennessee

Hill, Conrad
U. of Rhode Island

Jefferson, Robert W.
Western Illinois U.

Joel, Richard
U. of Tennessee

Johnson, Douglas
McCann-Erickson

Jugenheimer, Donald
U. of Kansas

Kelly, J. Patrick
Virginia Commonwealth U.

Kenyon, Robert
Magazine Publishers Assn.

Krugman, Dean M.
Illinois State U.

Krum, James R.
U. of Delaware

Lane, W. Ronald
U. of Georgia

Lanfranco, Leonard
U. of South Carolina

Largen, Robert
Drake U.

Lehew, Harry D.
Penn State U.

Levy, Norman A.
Procter & Gamble

Lorimor, E. S.
East Texas State U.

Lowenhar, Jeffrey A.
U. of Connecticut

Mandell, Maurice
Bowling Green State U.

Martin, Charles H.
U. of Texas

McCormick, Rosemary
U. of Alberta, Canada

McGann, Anthony F.
U. of Wyoming

McMahan, Harry W.
Int'l. TV Consultant

Menne, Mary Susan
Iowa State U.

Merter, John E.
Eastern Illinois U.

Mindak, William
U. of Texas

Miracle, Gordon E.
Michigan State U.

Moore, B. Michael
Procter & Gamble

Moore, Frazier
U. of Georgia

Morris, Jim R.
U. of Kansas

Murphy, Harry
U. of Dayton

Parkinson, Thomas L.
U. of Delaware

Permut, Steven E.
Yale U.

Peters, William H.
U. of Wisconsin

Pierce, Frank N.
U. of Florida

Pliskin, Daniel
Fairleigh Dickinson U.

Ricard, David
Gunn Sr. High School
San Francisco

Richard, Milton
Mohawk Valley Comm. Coll.

Rosenblatt, S. Bernard
Texas Tech. U.

Russell, John T.
U. of Georgia

Schlinger, Mary Jane
U. of Illinois

Schreiber, Richard A.
Northern Illinois U.

Schwabe, Barry E.
U. of Rhode Island

Shaver, Harold C.
Kansas State U.

Shoaf, F. Robert
New York U.

Sinclair, Phillip A.
U. of Toledo

Smith, Gordon E.
Ball State U.

Steiner, Robert L.
U. of Cincinnati

Stephens, Edward
Northwestern U.

Stern, Bruce L.
Illinois State U.

Stewart, Daniel K.
Northern Illinois U.

Surlin, Stuart H.
U. of Georgia

Thomason, Tommy
Southern State College

Thompson, Willard
U. of Minnesota

Thurm, Tom
Assn. of National
Advertisers

Treas, Charles E.
U. of Mississippi

Ulanoff, Stanley M.
Baruch College

Weeks, Richard B.
U. of Rhode Island

Wright, John S.
Georgia State U.

Zeigler, Sherilyn K.
U. of Tennessee